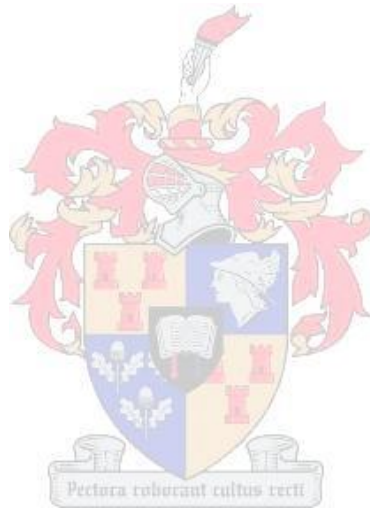


**Promoting social change amongst students in higher education: an
evaluation of the Listening, Living and Learning senior student housing
programme at Stellenbosch University**



by
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*Thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Philosophy in Higher Education in the Faculty of Education
at Stellenbosch University*

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DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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'Have you ever been at sea in a dense fog, when it seemed as if a tangible white darkness shut you in and the great ship, tense and anxious, groped her way toward the shore with plummet and sounding-line, and you waited with beating heart for something to happen? I was like that ship before my education began, only I was without compass or sounding line, and no way of knowing how near the harbour was.

"Light! Give me light!" was the wordless cry of my soul, and the light of love shone on me in that very hour.'

Helen Keller

ABSTRACT

The positioning of Stellenbosch University in a rapidly changing higher education context necessitates transformation, the promotion of diversity, and social integration among all students on campus. Although a vast variety of recruitment and support initiatives are in place to diversify the student population and to enhance student success, it is not sufficient to simply widen access for African, coloured and Indian students to Stellenbosch University. Change with regard to the institutional culture and social climate of the institution also needs to be effected. One intervention aimed at achieving this is the Listening, Living and Learning programme, promoting social change among students.

The Listening, Living and Learning (LLL) programme is a senior student housing programme, and a co-curricular living-learning community, and is the first of its kind in South Africa. The students in the LLL houses are ideally a diverse group of students, learning to live together, hosting conversations with guest speakers about the theme of their house and participating in a small project. The initiative aims to develop students as agents of change. Since its establishment in 2008, the outcomes of the LLL programme have not yet been evaluated. This study is embedded in a broader programme evaluation of the LLL initiative and evaluated only one of the programme outcomes: *increased levels of interaction among students in a LLL house lead to reduced stereotyping and diminished bias.*

All the students enrolled in LLL for 2013 (N=99) participated in the study. An applied, quantitative approach was followed. A web-based, electronic survey (Student Attitude Questionnaire) was conducted in a one-group pre-test post-test design that was completed by 79 students. The questionnaire measured tolerance towards five constructs of ‘the other’ – gender, race, language, socio-economic status and nationality. The results indicated for all five constructs – gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality – a change in senior students’ stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes, increasing to a more intolerant level from the pre-test to the post-test. The changes were not statistically significant.

The deduction can be made that increased levels of interaction among students in a LLL house, over a five-month period, did not lead to reduced stereotyping and diminished bias. The short timespan between measurements and the adjustment, as well as developmental processes of the students, impacted the results. However, valuable information was gathered

in terms of students' interpersonal and intrapersonal development; as well as feedback on the programme content and outcome.

This research study contributes, *firstly*, to a starting point for discussion to allow HEIs to consider learning communities as part of the co-curricular sphere in South Africa. *Secondly*, the research indicated the vital role learning communities play in students' in-class and out-of-class development. *Thirdly*, the study highlights the need for discussion and research on the integration of curricular and co-curricular learning in South Africa, as well as the establishing of partnerships between all role players in student affairs and faculty.

OPSOMMING

Die Universiteit van Stellenbosch se posisie in die vinnige veranderende konteks van hoër onderwys noodsaak transformasie, bevordering van diversiteit en sosiale integrasie van alle studente op kampus. Al is 'n groot verskeidenheid werwing- en steuninitiatiewe in plek om die studentepopulasie te diversifiseer en studentesukses te bevorder, is dit nie genoeg om slegs toegang na die Universiteit van Stellenbosch vir swart, bruin en Indiër studente te vergemaklik nie. Daar moet ook veranderinge aan die institusionele kultuur en sosiale klimaat van die inrigting teweeggebring word. Een intervensie wat daarop gemik is om dit te bereik deur sosiale verandering onder studente te bevorder, is die Luister-, Leef- en Leerprogram.

Die Luister-, Leef- en Leerprogram (LLL) is 'n behuisingsprogram vir senior studente en 'n ko-kurrikulêre leefgemeenskap, die eerste van sy soort in Suid-Afrika. Die studente in die LLL-huise is idealgesproke 'n diverse groep studente wat leer om saam te leef, gasheer speel vir gesprekke oor hulle huis se tema met sprekers van buite en deelneem aan 'n klein projek. Die inisiatief het ten doel om studente as veranderingsagente te ontwikkel. Sedert dit in 2008 begin is, is die uitkomst van die LLL-program nog nie geëvalueer nie. Hierdie studie is gesetel in 'n breër programmevaluering van die LLL-inisiatief en evalueer slegs een van die program se uitkomst: *hoër vlakke van interaksie tussen studente in 'n LLL-huis lei tot die vermindering van stereotipering en bevooroordele.*

Al die studente wat in 2013 vir LLL ingeskryf is (N=99), het aan die studie deelgeneem. 'n Toegepaste, kwantitatiewe aanslag is gevolg. 'n Webgebaseerde, elektroniese opname ("Student Attitude Questionnaire") is gemaak volgens 'n eengroep-voortoets-natoets-ontwerp wat deur 79 studente voltooi is. Die vraelys meet verdraagsaamheid teenoor vyf konstruksies van 'die ander' – geslag, ras, taal, sosio-ekonomiese status en nasionaliteit. Die resultate dui op 'n verandering in senior studente se stereotiperende en diskriminerende houdings in al vyf konstruksies – geslag, taal, ras, sosio-ekonomiese status en nasionaliteit – met 'n verhoging na 'n meer onverdraagsame vlak vanaf die voortoets na die natoets. Die veranderinge was nie statisties beduidend nie.

Die afleiding kan gemaak word dat die verhoogde vlakke van interaksie tussen studente in 'n LLL-huis oor 'n periode van vyf maande nie gelei het tot verminderde stereotipering en

bevooroordele nie. Die kort tydperk tussen opnames en die aanpassing sowel as die ontwikkelingsprosesse van die studente het 'n impak op die resultate gemaak. Waardevolle inligting is egter ingesamel oor studente se interpersoonlike en intrapersoonlike ontwikkeling sowel as terugvoer op die program se inhoud en uitkomst.

Hierdie navorsingstudie dra *eerstens* by tot 'n beginpunt vir die bespreking dat inrigtings vir hoër onderwys leergemeenskappe as deel van die ko-kurrikulêre terrein in Suid-Afrika beskou. *Tweedens* dui die navorsing op die belangrike rol wat leergemeenskappe in studente se binne- en buiteklasontwikkeling speel. *Derdens* beklemtoon die studie die behoefte aan bespreking en navorsing oor die integrasie van kurrikulêre en ko-kurrikulêre leer in Suid-Afrika, sowel as die behoefte aan vennootskappe tussen alle rolspelers in studentesake en fakulteite.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Stellenbosch University (SU) is one of the oldest universities in South Africa and carries the label of “historically white Afrikaans university” (South African History Online, 1996). Much of its history has been strongly associated with apartheid. Accepting an honorary doctorate from Stellenbosch University on 25 October 1996 former President Nelson Mandela indicated in his address that the institution had been the leading intellectual home of Afrikaner Nationalism, and apartheid received a great deal of its theoretical justification from scholars of this institution (South African History Online, 1996).

The strong association between apartheid, racial segregation and Stellenbosch University is vividly illustrated by one particular incident. Parts of the university’s mid-campus were built in “*Die Vlakte*” (Afrikaans for “The Flats”) that was home to many coloured residents of Stellenbosch. These residents were subject to forced removals in terms of the Group Areas Act (Act 41 of 1950) that was promulgated on 27 April, the date on which South Africa today celebrates Freedom Day (Stellenbosch University, 2013a). The former Lückhoff School in Banhoek Road formed the heart of “*Die Vlakte*”, and was the first Afrikaans secondary school for coloured children in the Boland. On 30 October 1969, in terms of the Group Areas Act, the more than 1000 learners were removed and had to carry their school benches from the old school to the new school building in the coloured community of Idas Valley. The fact that the old school building was transferred to Stellenbosch University was the cause of nearly 40 years’ division between the University and the coloured community of Stellenbosch (Stellenbosch University, 2013a). In 2007, as a symbol of reconciliation and transformation, the University dedicated the school building to the community, after SU also supported the compilation of a book on the people of “*Die Vlakte*” (Stellenbosch University, 2013a).

Until the early 1990’s SU was a racially exclusive institution for white students only although a small number of African students were admitted since the late 1970’s

(Stellenbosch University, 2013a). Transformation and the language debate around Afrikaans as medium of instruction at the University became two paramount issues. For the past 10 years a battle for the future of Afrikaans as a university language has been waged. One of the participants has been the government, with an emphasis on widening participation and access through the medium of English for blacks at all universities. The call for a predominantly Afrikaans Stellenbosch University is sometimes branded as nationalist, racist or exclusivist. However, in 1996 Nelson Mandela saw it as the University's special task to 'promote the sustained development of Afrikaans as an academic medium' (Giliomee, 2009). Müller (2012) explains that SU has powerful symbolic value for the minority Afrikaans cultural and language community in South Africa, although it has had a significant proportion of white English speaking students for many decades. Giliomee (2009) indicates that given the location of SU, the particular challenge is to draw large numbers of coloured Afrikaans-speakers to the institution and thus prove that transformation could also occur in and through Afrikaans.

In 1997 the Education White Paper 3, Notice 1196 of 1997, stipulated the transformation of higher education in order to redress past inequalities (DoE, 1997). It indicated that the total number of African students at universities and technikons increased by an annual average of 14% between 1986 and 1993, as against 0.4% for whites. However, the overall participation rates, that is the percentage of the 20-24 age cohort enrolled in higher education, which is the international norm adopted by UNESCO, continued to be characterised by gross inequalities. In 1993, the participation rate in all post-Standard ten (grade 12) programmes in public and private institutions for white students was almost 70 per cent and that for African students was only about 12 per cent. Since 1993, such disparities have significantly diminished, but they are still substantial, especially when analysed on a programme basis, and by level of qualification (DoE, 1997). By 2010 the participation rate of Africans has marginally increased to 14 per cent, while that of Whites stood at 57 per cent (CHE, 2012:3). One of the primary aims of the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 (DoE, 1997) was also to redress past discrimination and ensure representivity and equal access to higher education. Within this context, SU prioritized its aim to diversify its student population to ensure fair access to higher education for all.

SU's student profile has changed quite drastically since the 1990s. At the time of former President Nelson Mandela's release from prison in 1990, 762 black students (as a generic term for Africans, coloureds and Indians) were enrolled at SU, constituting a mere 5,4% of the entire student body. In 2012, SU had 9 221 black students. At undergraduate and postgraduate level, this group represents 33,1% of the student body. This trend is continuing as the percentage of undergraduate black students has risen from 25,9% in 2012 to 28,3% in 2013 (Stellenbosch University, 2013b).

The positioning of Stellenbosch University as a transformed institution that is able to address the demands of a tertiary institution of the 21st century was confirmed on 29 April 2013, when the SU Council approved Management's Institutional Intent and Strategy for 2013 to 2018. This makes provision for, amongst others, the changing teaching preferences of students and the strengthening of Afrikaans as instruction medium as well as academic language. This will be achieved by implementing a fully bilingual academic offering through the greater use of parallel medium tuition and educational interpreting and at the same time enable SU to be accessible to English-speaking students. In this way the University will be able to reach its diversity objectives much faster and by 2018 the institution should have a diversity profile where coloured, African and Indian students will make up 50% of the number of enrolled students (Stellenbosch University, 2013a). However, although SU is now officially positioned as a transformed institution, transformation did not only start during 2013. The process of transformation has been gaining momentum the last few years due to a variety of factors. A leading factor is the lack of diversity among staff and student complements. Of the 23 Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in South Africa, SU has the smallest number of black students.

Within this context it is therefore necessary to promote diversity, transformation and social integration among all students on campus. However, transformation consists of much more than merely changing in terms of the racial composition of the student population. Milem, Chang and Antonio (2005:iii) adequately summarize it by stating that diversity and inclusion efforts move beyond numbers of students or numbers of programmes as end goals. Instead, these are multi-layered processes through which excellence is achieved in learning, research and teaching, student development, local

and global community engagement, and workforce development. In essence, transformation is about integrating diversity and quality efforts, challenging institutional culture, as well as the beliefs and attitudes of staff. Transformation requires that a diverse student and staff population should feel that they belong in the institution.

The need for social belonging – for seeing oneself as socially connected and integrated – is a basic human motivation. A sense of social connectedness predicts favourable outcomes, referring to mental and physical health, as well as academic achievement (Walton & Cohen, 2007:82). If social belonging is important to intellectual achievement, members of historically excluded ethnic groups may suffer a disadvantage. Members of these ethnic groups are usually numerically under-represented, encounter overt and subtle forms of prejudice and see same-race peers feeling alienated on campuses, feeling cut off from the social capital that the majority group of students enjoy (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000; Harber, 1998; Loo & Rolison, 1986; Uhlmann & Cohen, 2005). A sense of uncertainty regarding social belonging may take the form of a broad-based hypothesis that “people like me do not belong here” (Walton & Cohen, 2007; 83). The fact that at SU the majority of the student population is white has created a specific kind of campus culture and traditions. In order to fully embrace transformation, the other ethnic groups on campus, referring to the African, coloured and Indian population, should be socially integrated, with their culture and traditions contributing to campus culture. The implementation of explicit interventions to address both social inequality and enhance social integration needs to occur on SU campus.

Several initiatives are implemented at the University to address diversity and social integration – these range from the recruitment of diverse students to a residential placement policy focusing on diversifying residences on the SU campus. One intervention aimed specifically at achieving enhanced social integration among diverse groups of students is the Listening, Living and Learning programme (LLL), a senior student housing programme, directed at minimizing stereotyping and discrimination among students. It is posited on the assumption that if people of different genders, races, ethnicities, religion, socio-economic status and nationality

interact with one another on an equal level, less stereotyping by them will occur (Kloppers, Dunn & Smorenburg, 2012).

Keeling (2004:3-6) emphasizes that a truly transformative education repeatedly exposes students to multiple opportunities for intentional learning through the formal academic curriculum, student life and collaborative co-curricular programming. Zeller (2008:68) agrees on the importance of integrating students' curricular and co-curricular experiences to create experiential linkages to formal academic work. The expectation is that the learning that students receive from their involvement in the LLL programme will provide such opportunities for intentional learning in the co-curriculum. This learning will be transferred to peers in their immediate environments, but also ultimately to a wider context as they go on to take up leadership roles outside the institution (Kloppers, Dunn & Smorenburg, 2012).

Globally colleges and universities are challenged by continuing change in learning needs, trends and expectations of the student population. Keeling (2004) explains that true liberal education requires the engagement of the whole student, including student development and the adaptation of learning to students' lives and needs. In addition to academic departments responsible for teaching and learning, the role of the out-of-class experience in developing the *whole student* is very important.

Student Affairs is one of the divisions, departments or units that form part of an institution of higher education (Lumadi & Mampuru, 2010:716) and which play a major role in shaping the out-of-class experience of students. The Listening, Living and Learning programme (LLL) which is the object of this research at SU is an initiative of and strongly imbedded within the Student Affairs sphere, more specifically the Centre for Student Communities.

At SU the division for Student and Academic Support (SAS) consists of six centres of which the Centre for Student Communities is one (Kloppers, 2011). The Centre for Student Communities (CSC) focuses on providing student housing, and on developing students in residences and private lodging by providing co-curricular activities. The researcher is employed at the CSC as Deputy Director and manages the LLL

programme, which is an attempt to create student communities amongst senior students and provide experiential co-curricular learning opportunities.

An LLL house consists of eight students living together in a student house. The respondents have a specific theme for the year and engage in conversations on the theme. The students in the LLL house are ideally a small diverse group of students from different faculties, gender, race, background and nationality. The LLL programme is one of the first in its kind in the province, country and continent (Cornelissen, Dunn & Kloppers, 2011).

The question then arises whether and how the LLL programme contributes to producing students who create positive social change?

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The LLL programme was piloted in 2008 when it started with one student house. Currently there are 14 of these houses, and 24 will be added in 2014 (Kloppers, 2013). There are 99 students in the LLL programme and a full-time LLL co-ordinator assists with co-ordination and management.

The long-term development goal of LLL is to create a vital student housing experience, therefore not only having an influence on the way students think but also influencing their friends, family and the wider campus community (Kloppers, 2011). This implies that students who leave the LLL programme will have developed into leaders in their own right. Leadership development is therefore an important objective of the programme.

The theoretical framework for this programme is the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM). This model espouses seven critical values that are congruent with the purpose and goals of the LLL programme. What is important is that “change” (defined by believing in the importance of making a better world and better society for oneself and others) is at the “hub” of the model. The researcher believes that this underpins the entire rationale of the LLL programme. The SCM model is the most

widely used student leadership model in the United States of America. It stresses leadership as a process and is inclusive of all people regardless of their roles (Komives & Wagner, 2009). The model includes three levels of values: individual, group and community.

These three levels interact and together contribute to the overall goal of the model for positive social change. Group interaction is inherent in this model and is particularly stressed in the group values of the model (Haber, 2011:67). Several of the above mentioned values indicated in the SCM are encapsulated within the LLL programme promoting, amongst other things, student leadership development. The question posed by the researcher is whether LLL students develop some of the critical values of the Social Change Model of Leadership during the LLL experience.

For the purpose of this dissertation, the researcher will be evaluating only one of the outcomes of the programme – specifically focusing on students’ attitudes towards ‘the other’ manifested in stereotyping and discrimination. This can be associated with a variety of the critical values mentioned in the SCM, specifically with regard to social change and will be elaborated upon in Chapter Two.

1.3 RESEARCH GOAL, OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

Before the research paradigm, design and methodology will be embarked upon, the goals, objectives and hypotheses will be clarified.

1.3.1 Research Goal and Objectives

A goal often implies the broader, more abstract conception of “something which you plan to do or achieve”, while an objective denotes the more concrete, measurable and more speedily attainable conception of such a “plan to do or achieve” (De Vos & Fouché, 2005:104; De Vos & Fouché, 2011:94; Mouton, 2001:50).

The goal of the study is:

To evaluate one of the outcomes of the Listening, Living and Learning programme, after a brief intervention, by investigating change (if any) in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes.

The objectives of this study are:

- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality (country of origin).*

1.3.2 Hypotheses

Kerlinger and Lee (in De Vos & Strydom, 2011:35) define a hypothesis as a conjectural statement of the relation between two variables. Hypotheses are always in declarative sentence form, and they relate, either generally or specifically, variables to variables. Babbie (2010:46) contributes by stating that research is planned to investigate hypotheses and will either support or fail to support hypotheses. A hypothesis is a specific testable probability about an experimental reality.

The following hypotheses were formulated as directive questions to the research. The hypotheses are applicable to the two tests conducted in the research – therefore each hypothesis refers to the pre- and post-testing. To avoid repetition, this is not mentioned after each hypothesis:

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender.

Hypothesis 1¹: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender.

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

Hypothesis 1²: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

Hypothesis 1³: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 1⁴: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

Hypothesis 1⁵: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

The research paradigm, design and methodology of the study will be discussed accordingly.

1.4 RESEARCH PARADIGM, DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Research Paradigm

Paradigms in research are all-encompassing systems of interrelated practice and thinking that define for researchers the nature of their enquiry along three dimensions – ontology, epistemology and methodology (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006:7). A paradigm serves as the lens or organizing principle by which reality is interpreted (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). The paradigm for the study is the post-positivist perspective.

Post-positivist approaches' assumptions hold true more for quantitative research than qualitative research and assume that reality is multiple, subjective and mentally constructed by individuals. For the post-positivist researcher, reality is not a fixed entity and it is to a certain degree accepted that reality is a creation of the individuals involved in the research. This is a useful paradigm for researchers who maintain an interest in some of the aspects of positivism such as quantification, yet wish to incorporate interpretivist concerns around subjectivity and meaning, and who are interested in the pragmatic combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:65). Creswell (2009:7) explains that post-positivism is reductionistic in that the intent is to reduce the ideas into a small, discrete set of ideas to test, such as the variables that comprise hypotheses and research questions. The knowledge that develops through a post-positivist lens is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists “out there” in the world. Thus, developing numeric measures of observations and studying the behavior of individuals becomes paramount for a post-positivist.

Due to the quantitative nature of the study, as well as the aim to assess the causal relationship between constructs, post-positivism was chosen as the lens through which the study is interpreted.

1.4.2 Research Design

The research design is the plan or blueprint of how the intended research will be conducted (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:70; Mouton, 2001:55). The research design used in this study was programme evaluation. The central goal of programme evaluation is not theoretical but is focused on answering specific, practical questions about social

programmes and their development. These questions normally focus on programme implementation and outcomes, as well as on the quality of service provided (Clarke, 2005; Potter, 2006:411).

It was done in a formative evaluation format as the concern is to improve the LLL programme. Formative evaluation focuses on the process of programme implementation. It usually incorporates a process of programme monitoring to establish whether the intervention is being implemented as planned. In formative evaluation, the evaluator attempts to identify aspects of the programme that are working well, aspects of the programme that are problematic, and aspects of the programme requiring modification or improvement (Potter, 2006:412).

A quantitative approach was followed with a quasi-experimental, one-group pretest-posttest design to measure the dependent variables by conducting a self-administered, electronic survey (Creswell, 2009:145; Fouche & De Vos, 2005:139).

1.4.3 Population and Sample

A research problem has bearing on some or other population. The universe refers to the possible people who fit the set criteria to form part of the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Goodwin (2003) refers to the population as all the sampling components that are relevant to the research question. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:52) define the population of a study as “the full set of cases from which the sample is taken”. In this study, the universe and population were the same as the study included all students placed in the LLL programme for the 2013 academic year at Stellenbosch University (N=99). As the research had to be conducted within a naturally formed group (Creswell, 2009:155), a convenience sample was possible. A more in-depth discussion follows in Chapter Four.

1.4.4 Data Collection

Data are the basic material with which researchers work. Data come from observation and can take the form of numbers (numeric or quantitative data) or language

(qualitative data) (Durrheim, 2006a:51). Quantitative data collection methods often employ measuring instruments (Delpont, 2005:165). Data collection for this study was done through electronic self-administered questionnaires.

The Student Attitude Questionnaire was developed by Fourie-Malherbe (2012) and is attached as Addendum A. This instrument was specifically developed to measure attitudes towards different dimensions of ‘otherness’ (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012). The questionnaire consists of two divisions and will be comprehensively discussed in Chapter Four. The questionnaire was electronically distributed to all students currently enrolled in the LLL programme (N=99). The questionnaire was administered twice – as a pretest at the beginning of the year (just after enrolment) and as a post-test again after 5 months’ time. A letter of consent had to be signed before the questionnaire could be completed (Refer to Addendum B). The respondents were assured that all information would be kept confidential and that their anonymity would be protected as their names would not appear anywhere or would not be used at any time during the reporting process.

1.4.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis is seen as the heartbeat of any research (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004:103). The gathered data was analyzed in terms of the indicated aim and objectives of the study. The analysis was performed by Professor M. Kidd of the Centre for Statistical Consultation at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa. Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarize and describe the biographical details of the sample. Data analysis furthermore typically included converting of all the pretest and posttest scores to a percentage, and the computation of means and standard deviations (Fouché & Bartley, 2011). The data were analysed using STATISTICA (V10), a data analysis software package (StatSoft Inc., 2011). The data collection and analysis process is comprehensively described in Chapter Four.

1.5 VALIDATING THE STUDY

The fundamental aim of a quantitative research study is usually to establish a link between one or more independent variables and a dependent variable or to generalise

the results found with the particular respondents used in the study to other groups of people (Clark-Carter, 2010:40-42). In order to ensure the fundamental aim of a study is reached, the research design needs to be evaluated. In order to evaluate the research design, constructs like internal and external validity need to be achieved. Clark-Carter (2010:42) defines *internal validity* as the degree to which the experimental treatment makes a difference and in other words successfully demonstrates that changes in a dependent variable are caused by changes in an independent variable. *External validity* is the extent to which findings in one study can be applied to another situation and therefore be generalizable to other settings (Clark-Carter, 2010:27; Grinnell, Unrau & Williams, 2011:269). Therefore, if the findings from one study are also observed in another situation, the results are said to be generalizable or externally valid.

In addition, the validity and reliability of the measurement used to obtain the data from respondents, the Student Attitude Questionnaire (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012), need to be determined. *Measurement validity*, which is the degree to which a measure does what it is intended to do (Durrheim & Painter, 2006a:147), and *reliability*, which refers to the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trials (Durrheim & Painter, 2006a:152), will be elaborated upon in Chapter Four.

1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

The following concepts are defined and clarified in order to conceptualize their meaning within the context of this study.

1.6.1 Social change

Social change often includes acts that aim to improve the human condition or care for the environment. It may also be revealed in the more purposeful ways people work together because they value socially responsible leadership (Burns in Komives, Wagner & Associates, 2009:4). Wagner (2009) defines social change as the concept that addresses each person's sense of responsibility towards others and the realization

that making things better for one pocket of society makes things better for society as a whole. For the purpose of the study, the latter definition will be used.

1.6.2 Higher education

According to the Higher Education Act 101 (DoE, 1997), 'higher education' means all learning programmes leading to qualifications higher than grade 12, or its equivalent in terms of the National Qualifications Framework. A 'higher education institution' means any institution that provides higher education on a full-time, part-time or distance basis (CHE, 1997).

1.6.3 Senior students

For the purpose of this study, senior students will refer to students who are in their third or higher, academic year at Stellenbosch University as well as students who are busy with postgraduate studies. In terms of chronological age, it will refer to students age 20 and older.

1.6.4 Listening, Living and Learning student housing programme

The Listening, Living and Learning programme at Stellenbosch University offers an experiential learning opportunity whilst providing student accommodation and is focused upon senior students. The LLL houses are designed to provide students with a unique on-campus living environment together with an educational, service oriented programme, aiming to promote a listening, living and learning that becomes an innovative "think tank" (Kloppers, 2013; Smorenburg, Dunn & Kloppers, 2013).

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Researchers need to anticipate the ethical issues that may arise during their studies (Hesse-Bieber & Leavey in Creswell, 2009). Researchers have two basic categories of ethical responsibility: responsibility to those, both human and nonhuman, who

participate in a project; and responsibility to the discipline of science, to be accurate and honest in the reporting of their research (Gravetter & Forzano, 2003:60).

Researchers need to protect their research respondents, develop trust with them, promote the integrity of research, guard against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on their organizations or institutions, and cope with new, challenging problems (Israel & Hay, 2006). Ethical questions are apparent today in such issues as personal disclosure, authenticity and credibility of the research report, the role of researchers in cross-cultural contexts, and issues of personal privacy through forms of internet data collection (Creswell, 2009:87). Ethical practices involve much more than merely following a set of static guidelines, such as those provided by professional associations. Authors need to anticipate and address any ethical dilemmas that may arise in their research. These issues apply to qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research, and to all stages of research (Creswell, 2009).

The researcher has familiarized herself with the professional code(s) of ethics and guidelines for ethically responsible research relevant to the field of study. In order to apply ethical standards all respondents provided informed consent, their participation was voluntary, privacy was guaranteed as well as confidentiality and anonymity. All data was protected against unauthorized access and permission was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee (REC), Stellenbosch University to conduct the research (Refer to Addendum C).

1.8 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study forms part of a broader programme evaluation of the LLL programme. It focuses on only one of the programme outcomes namely on change, if any, in stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes of students within LLL. Other aspects and objectives of the programme will be assessed in follow-up investigations.

The study is situated in the field of higher education studies and focuses on the outcomes and results of a particular student development programme at Stellenbosch University. The evaluation of the programme was therefore contextualized within one

institution and the results will not necessarily be generalizable. What may be valuable within the scope of the study is that it might provide guidelines to evaluators of similar programmes and demonstrate a novel approach to holistic student development within the South African higher education context.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter served as an introduction to the present research study, and has outlined the contextual background and content of the study. A motivation for the study was provided and the goal, objectives and hypotheses were stated. This was followed by a brief overview of the research methods employed in the current study. Chapter One concludes with the defining of key terminology concepts, the ethical considerations as well as the scope and limitations of the study.

The next chapter, Chapter Two, will be providing an overview of the recent literature regarding national and international student housing models, co-curricular development and learning communities, with a specific focus on the LLL programme.

CHAPTER 2

PERSPECTIVES ON CO-CURRICULAR DEVELOPMENT AND THE ROLE OF LEARNING COMMUNITIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Dramatic changes in society and the economy, as well as the political frameworks developed by governments in response to forces associated with globalization, have had a major impact on the reform of higher education systems internationally (Higgs, 2006). As institutions of higher education are increasingly being held accountable for meeting the needs of the knowledge society, universities are seeking new ways to foster student satisfaction, retention, persistence to graduation, and academic and social experiences (Inkelas, Vogt, Longerbeam & Owen, 2006).

In many ways higher education is a house divided: divided between academic and student affairs, divided between teaching and research, divided between academic discipline-based specialized study and the need to provide broader preparation for life-long learning (Smith & Williams, 2007). In the researcher's experience, for most students, their lives are divided into two separate entities - their encounters with learning and educators in the classroom, the location of formal learning, and their encounters and activities with a variety of other role players outside the classroom, when they are serving on leadership committees, playing sport or living in a residential facility on campus. Very few students, however, view the encounters outside the classroom as informal learning. Students struggle to effectively balance the formal learning environment with the informal learning environment – this has led to a need for an integrated approach to learning.

Inkelas *et al.* (2006) report that several institutions have found that living-learning communities provide a means for meeting previously unacknowledged needs of students by creating a seamless educational experience in which students' academic and social experiences can be purposefully integrated through their living environment, conversations with peers, interactions with faculty and attendance of programmes. These programmes can range from themed communities to academic

courses and structured social activities (Inkelas, Zeller, Murphy & Hummel, 2006:11; Jessup-Anger, Johnson & Wawrzynski, 2012:172).

The learning community movement represents one large-scale effort to rethink the organizational structures of universities including the way the curriculum is structured. The intentional restructuring that happens in learning communities creates the opportunity for dramatically redesigning the time and space for learning (Smith & Williams, 2007). There is now a considerable body of research describing how tertiary institutions can intentionally create conditions to promote student success (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh & Whitt, 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Tagg, 2003; Massy, 2003).

Therefore, within the context of enhancing student success and redesigning learning space, the growing role of student housing, learning communities and co-curricular development should be acknowledged. This chapter aims to provide an overview of developments in the co-curricular environment by exploring different student housing models from an international and national perspective. Learning communities as a specific student housing model incorporating co-curricular development will be focused on specifically. In an attempt to provide a theoretical framework on the development of co-curricular skills with a specific focus on socially responsible leadership, an overview of Social Change Theory, with an emphasis on the Social Change Model of Leadership, will conclude the chapter.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE CO-CURRICULAR SPHERE

One of the characteristics of the global economy is the emergence of the knowledge society, a term which refers to the shift from the production of material goods to information processing activities in advanced capitalist societies. In this context, there is the expectation that higher education will contribute to enhancing the nation-state's competitive edge in the global marketplace by developing innovations in knowledge and technology and producing the new "smart" workers, who will take up key positions in the knowledge economy (Higgs, 2006).

Once the shift to democracy afforded South Africa the opportunity to re-enter the international community, the context in which the higher education system had to operate inevitably involved global as well as local considerations. This context requires producing more graduates, but also producing more of the “right sort” of candidates (Boughey, 2004). When referring to the right sort of candidates, Hamrick, Evans and Schuh (2002) identify key outcomes for students, and explain the role that student affairs professionals play in students achieving those outcomes. These authors emphasize a holistic approach and highlight outcomes related to psychosocial development (self-awareness, interpersonal sensitivity); intellectual development; and life-skills development (workforce and life-management skills). Educating and developing the total student, as well as equipping him/her with competence to effectively cope with diversity and multiculturalism are important. This highlights the essential role of student engagement.

Student engagement has two key components. The first is the amount of time and effort students put into their studies and other activities that lead to the experiences and outcomes that constitute student success. The second is the ways in which the institution allocates resources and organizes learning opportunities and services to induce students to participate and benefit from such activities. These are the practices that the college or university has direct influence over (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh & Whitt, 2010).

Globally colleges and universities are challenged by the extent of continuing change in learning needs and expectations of the student population. These challenges have to be addressed to promote student success and to prepare students to become engaged citizens enabling positive social change. Keeling (2004:3) explains that the new concept of learning should recognize the essential integration of personal development with learning, reflecting the diverse ways through which students may engage, as whole people with multiple dimensions and unique personal histories, with the tasks and content of learning. Riker and Decoster (2008:82) add that it is simply not possible to disembodify the human personality and develop a student’s intellectual capacities in isolation from his cultural, spiritual and psychological growth. Non-

classroom activities, experiential learning, as well as classroom education, must aim at enhancing student growth as total human beings.

The scholars quoted above as well as others such as Astin (1993), Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) put forward a convincing argument that experiences with out-of-classroom learning can be as an important contributor to student success as any general education curriculum. The learning taking place outside the classroom profoundly influences not only performance in the classroom but much of the cognitive, emotional, and social growth students experience during their years in higher education (Astin, 1993; Baxter Magolda, 1996; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Terenzini, Springer, Pascarella & Nora, 1995). It has been recognized that many cognitive student development issues occurring outside the classroom – such as student's personal, emotional, and identity development needs – complicate students' learning inside the classroom. This suggests that if student affairs professionals administer to students' non-cognitive needs, students' cognitive capacities will improve (Magolda & Quaye, 2011:388).

Out-of-class experiences and student life usually fall in the domain of student affairs. Helfgot (2005:7) explains that student affairs “is the discipline practised by all of those who work in the general field and its numerous specialities”. According to the researcher, the role of student affairs in developing the *whole student*, together with academic departments, might be underestimated. This is confirmed by Keeling's stance (2004:3-6) that a truly transformative education reportedly exposes students to multiple opportunities for intentional learning through the formal academic curriculum, student life, collaborative co-curricular programming, community-based, and global experiences. Magolda and Quaye (2011:389) recommend that faculty and student affairs professionals integrate student learning and development, de-emphasizing the in-class-out-class and cognitive-non-cognitive dichotomies. This learning-centred philosophy redefines the roles of student affairs professionals as those of educators. Rhoads and Black (1995) emphasize that student affairs educators foster conditions that enable diverse students and educators to interact together in ways that are participatory and build community. This necessitates different notions

of what constitutes learning – learning involves holism, inclusion, and action beyond the classroom.

On many campuses, however, students may perceive little coherence in student affairs activities, and individual episodes of acquiring knowledge fragments (such as resume writing, developing group living agreements, or alcohol awareness programmes) or developmental experiences (such as leadership in student organizations or volunteer service) simply orbit the student's world with little sense of their relationship one to another or to academic courses (Keeling, 2004:8). An example of integrating out-of-classroom learning with in-classroom learning is that of several living-learning communities that include mandatory student success courses (Lichtenstein, 2005). Learning communities link together learning opportunities – whether it be courses, co-curricular activities, special topics, or interactions and conversations with faculty and peers – to help students integrate and obtain a deeper understanding of their knowledge (Lenning & Ebbers in Inkelas & Weisman, 2003). The integration of these two facets of learning – curricular and co-curricular - can contribute significantly to a student's success in higher education.

Kuh *et al.* (2010) posit that what students *do* during college counts more for what they learn and whether they will persist than who they are or even where they go to college. These authors indicate that the time and energy students devote to educationally purposeful activities are the single best predictor of their learning and personal development.

Societal issues, such as culture, age, socio-economic status and being part of a minority ethnic group, influence students' educational experiences inside and outside the classroom. So, too, do institutional factors, such as institutional learning outcomes for students and organizational structures. Student affairs professionals who are intent on optimizing the co-curriculum must clarify learning outcomes and realign departmental organizational structures to achieve these outcomes (Magolda & Quaye, 2011:386). Yen (2001) indicates that the most powerful settings for group creativity and new idea generation are informal spaces where people gather.

In summary, the unique learning activities within a co-curricular context in which students engage influence their curricular learning. It is therefore important how programmes fuse students' curricular and co-curricular learning. Magolda and Quaye (2011:397) summarize it perfectly by stating that the world and higher education are changing – in order to respond appropriately to these changes, student affairs educators must focus their practices on creating environments that facilitate learning. Such environments include residences and alternative student housing. This line of thinking necessitates a broader perspective on student housing models in an international and national context. Learning communities, as an integration of curricular and co-curricular learning, will be explored.

2.3 STUDENT HOUSING MODELS

The earliest on-campus student accommodations were created in twelfth century Europe. Originally, students at the earliest medieval universities sourced their own accommodation through rentals free from university control. The first residential colleges were established in Paris, in response to the need to provide accommodation to poorer students, and were soon duplicated at Oxford and Cambridge (Rashdall, 1895:479). The English system differed from the original French structures primarily in that the heads of colleges were more likely to be fellow teachers rather than administrators, but otherwise student housing continued to evolve along the same lines in the two countries, involving the construction of student and faculty housing alongside academic facilities so that students and faculty could share knowledge and experience (Han, 2004:17-18). In this regard, pastoral care was part of the university's obligation to its students, as universities acted *in loco parentis* (Macintyre, 2003:110). The medieval German system shared many characteristics with the French and English ones, but the consequence of the Reformation and, especially, the early nineteenth century Humboldtian reforms, was greater emphasis on the university being purely a place for scholarship and research; accommodation was thought to be the responsibility of the student (Han, 2004:17).

The growing demand during the 1960s for a university education, coupled with the assertion of the rights of youth and students, exposed the weaknesses in the

established approaches to student housing. The shortage of accommodation compelled many universities to introduce systems like Cambridge University's "licensed lodgings", so as to provide bed and breakfast services to students (Hughes & Davis, 2002). The conservative traditions of authority imposed in formal halls of residence came to be seen as inappropriate and outdated (Macintyre, 2003:110). Students were also becoming more demanding of the type and quality of accommodation they expected, and the universities themselves began to put a lot of emphasis on accommodation as a key selling point in their advertising to attract prospective students. As a result, new universities that were established during this time tended to follow one of three models: "non-collegiate dormitory residences, small-scale residences with shared facilities, or reliance on the private housing market in the surrounding areas" (Macintyre, 2003:110).

In addition to the traditional model whereby universities finance and build their own new student housing facilities, three other models of student housing have since the 1990s become common in America and Europe. These models will be briefly discussed.

2.3.1 Public-private partnerships

Public-private partnerships (PPPs) with regard to student housing development typically involve the transfer to a private provider of housing-related functions such as "land control, project ownership, property management and operation, design and construction, project financing, and residence life programmes" (Han, 2004:30; Paxton, 2008).

In a context where student enrolments are growing and public funding of higher education is not keeping pace or even declining, PPPs are particularly useful when a university cannot afford to build its own student housing, or prefers not to take on the risks and future maintenance costs of doing so. An indirect advantage of a PPP for a university is that it can instead focus its own resources on what it does best, namely, higher education (Paxton, 2008). Private developers, being potentially more up to date with and attuned to modern trends and tastes, may be better suited to meet student

needs, while the financing options provided by a joint venture can also “increase the total investment capacity ... [and] preserve the debt capacity and tax-exempt advantage of the university” (Han, 2004:31). Although this is an ideal solution to address lack of student housing, especially for the particular tertiary institution in terms of budgetary and financial risks, the researcher is of the opinion that the governance of the property in terms of student affairs staff and residence life programmes, should be carefully monitored. A PPP might have the potential to simply provide housing without establishing learning communities within.

2.3.2 Partnerships between cities and universities

Universities play an important role in a city’s intellectual, cultural and economic life. Because of the high rentals that university students are likely to pay if there is high demand for accommodation, they end up taking spaces that could be occupied by neighbourhood families and an artificial inflation of housing prices is created which can have a negative effect on the local housing market (Macintyre, 2003:112; Han, 2004:32). In this regard, it becomes crucial for the city and its higher education institutions to work together to address housing concerns. A good example of this practice is the city of Boston, which since 1990 has added 16 324 beds for undergraduate and graduate students, resulting in the freeing of 4 100 housing units for use by the city’s residents (Han, 2004:32). The City of Boston Redevelopment Authority works closely with universities and colleges to develop and update their institutional master plans which address issues of demographics, land use, transportation and urban design, among others (Han, 2004:32). In this way, the city assists the universities to provide adequate accommodation for their students while at the same time protecting the city’s housing stock by reducing the number of students who occupy residential property.

2.3.3 Reuse of old buildings

A university may consider renovating some of its other properties in order to make them suitable for student housing. Usually, buildings targeted for this purpose are within walking distance of the university, which makes them very convenient for student housing (Han, 2004:33). It is also cheaper to finance renovations than to build

new buildings. However, many considerations must be taken into account when deciding to reuse or renovate. Construction has to take cognisance of zoning laws. Abandoned buildings may be office buildings and the local council or municipality will have to approve their conversion into student accommodation if in a business district. Furthermore, there may be restrictions with regard to noise levels, as these are different for residential and office areas (Remøy & Van der Voordt, 2007).

With the abovementioned discussion providing background of the history of student housing as well as the different models utilized in terms of financing housing, it is important to keep the escalating demand for student accommodation in mind, as well as the latest developing trends.

2.3.4 Recent trends in student housing

Growing demand for student accommodation worldwide is spurring innovations and initiatives in the field. These include an emphasis on residential learning (or ‘living-learning’) communities, more mixed and flexible housing forms, a focus on safety and security, sustainable and green campus developments, and greater consideration for the diversity of student housing needs (Report on the Ministerial Committee, 2011:17). Some innovative trends are the following:

a) Residential Learning Communities

Residential learning communities organize on-campus living arrangements in such a way that students with similar interests live in close physical proximity, which increases opportunities for out-of-class interactions and supplementary learning. A learning community is a network of relationships that combines experiential and reflective learning. Its goal should be to close the gap between the experiences students have inside the classroom and outside the classroom, allowing them to continue the learning experience after they have left the classroom (Frazier & Eighmy, 2012:11). These residential learning communities are also known as ‘residential colleges’ or ‘living-learning communities’ (which will be elaborated upon in the next section of this chapter), they are touted as improving retention, as students

in such communities are reported to spend more time talking about their academics and studying outside the classroom (Report on the Ministerial Committee, 2011:17).

b) Mixed Student Housing

Mixed housing in its simplest form accommodates the needs of both single and married students. Apartments with two or four bedrooms which can either house married students along with their families or can be shared by a group of single students are being constructed on some campuses. However, mixed housing comes with its own problems, especially when married and single students share such spaces, since their different needs may prove incompatible. In addition, the fact that student demand for housing rises and falls at different times of the year has encouraged some universities to develop more flexible models, like the ‘double as a single’ and the ‘expanded housing’ models, to cater for fluctuating demand and thus maximize revenue (Report on the Ministerial Committee, 2011:18). Some universities lease hotel rooms or alternative accommodation to meet the temporary demand by students.

c) Sustainable Campus Housing

Sustainability and the development of green campuses are some of the ways in which universities and colleges are responding to the environmental challenge. In addition to using renewable sources of materials for construction, green campuses also promote sustainability and living-learning communities focused on environmental matters. In South Africa, the Universities of Cape Town and Stellenbosch are implementing sustainable living-learning communities by promoting paper recycling and energy saving initiatives and educating around environmental issues (Report on the Ministerial Committee, 2011:19).

d) Diversity of Student Housing Needs

In addition to individual students’ personal preferences, the diversity of student housing needs is especially pertinent in the context of issues of racial integration in student residences, and allocating accommodation in ways that take cognisance of sexual orientation (Report on the Ministerial Committee, 2011:20). Wright (2001) states that most universities worldwide have also implemented policies on mixed gender student housing, but the issue of access to housing by transgender couples is as

yet unresolved. While a married woman or man can obtain couple accommodation relatively easily, same-sex and transgender couples have had to resort to lawsuits in the United States in an effort to be treated fairly.

As the focus of this dissertation is on the Listening, Living and Learning senior student housing programme at Stellenbosch University, which functions as a type of learning community, the next section will be devoted to learning communities as a recent trend within the student housing environment.

2.4 LEARNING COMMUNITIES

Although the concept is not new, learning communities are lately receiving considerable attention from higher education scholars and practitioners (Zhao & Kuh, 2004). The forerunner of the learning community dates back to the 1920's and the short-lived 'experimental college' program at the University of Wisconsin introduced by Alexander Meiklejohn (Meiklejohn, 1932; Smith, 2001). A variation of this idea emerged once again in the 1960's with efforts to 'humanize' the learning environment. Community colleges became increasingly important, and a variety of innovative colleges were developed within existing four-year institutions or as new, freestanding institutions. The student population also changed dramatically, becoming more diverse, with more students attending college part-time and commuting. Creating community became more of a challenge when so many students had such busy lives outside the classroom (Smith & Williams, 2007:6).

Supported by the growing recognition that student engagement in educationally purposeful activities inside and outside the classroom is a precursor to high levels of student learning and student development, as well as an indicator of educational effectiveness, a contemporary version of the learning community surfaced in the late 1980s (Zhao & Kuh, 2004). However, early learning communities were limited in scope and in the students they served (Tinto, 2003).

Tinto (2003:1) explains that learning communities, as applied within the American context, seek to restructure the very classrooms in which students find themselves and

alter the way students experience both the curriculum and learning within those classrooms. Several authors have pointed out the potential of intentionally structured residence hall environments, called living-learning communities (LLC's) to blur the boundaries between in-class and out-of-class experiences (Blimling & Whitt, 1999; Inkelas *et al.*, 2006; Inkelas & Weisman, 2003; Kuh, Kinze, Schuh, Whitt & Associates, 2005; Schein, 2005). Over the past three decades, many American universities and colleges implemented LLC's in an attempt to create seamless learning environments between students' classroom and residence hall experiences (Inkelas & Soldner, 2011).

Living-learning communities are intentional communities in which students extend their academic experiences from the classroom to their personal life as they live in a specific part of a residence hall with students who are engaging in similar curricular and co-curricular activities (Schein, 2005). These communities therefore consist of respondents who (1) live together on campus, (2) take part in a shared academic endeavour, (3) use resources in their residence environment designed specifically for them, and (4) have structured social activities in their residential environment that emphasize learning (Inkelas, Zeller, Murphy & Hummel, 2006:11).

During 2004 a national study of living-learning programmes was conducted in the United States of America, involving learning communities in thirty-four research universities (Inkelas, 2005). The results indicated that the programmes could be categorized into fourteen primary types in terms of theme:

Table 2.1 Themes of living-learning programmes

Theme	Number of Programmes
Disciplinary Programmes	67
Cultural Programmes	32
Transition Programmes	30
Fine and Creative Arts	22
Honours	22

Civic / Social Leadership Programmes	21
Women's Programmes	18
Wellness / Healthy Living Programmes	9
General Programmes emphasizing Academic Excellence	7
Residential Colleges	7
Multi-disciplinary	4
Upper-division Programmes	4
Outdoor Recreation	2
Research	2

(Inkelas, 2005)

Of all the living-learning communities included in the study 73% offered no courses for credit. Fifty percent had no required co-curricular activities, though many offered a variety of optional activities. Thirty-three percent had no faculty involvement. Faculty (or lecturers, in South African terms) were more likely to be involved in learning community programmes set up in academic affairs and funded, at least partially, by academic affairs (Inkelas, 2005). As Smith and Williams (2007:18) rightly state, the abovementioned data suggests that living-learning communities could go much further in terms of connecting to the curriculum and exploring other possible connections. It is therefore important to take note of the development of living-learning communities since 2005.

Shushok and Sriram (2010:71) maintain that efforts to establish learning communities in American higher education have been widespread because they appear to be particularly effective in enhancing curricular coherence, nurturing deeper student learning and creating a sense of community between teachers and students. These authors emphasize that learning communities take a variety of forms among higher education institutions, such as clustering courses, first year interest groups, team-taught courses, and residence-based programmes. While learning communities vary in format, most seek to develop group identity, integrate student academic and social experiences, offer connections between disciplines, foster critical thinking skills and regularly assess learning outcomes (Shushok & Sriram, 2010:7).

Most learning communities incorporate active and collaborative learning activities and promote involvement in complementary academic and social activities that extend beyond the classroom. Such approaches are linked with such positive behaviours as increased academic effort and with outcomes such as promoting openness to diversity, social tolerance, and personal and interpersonal involvement (Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Terenzini & Nora, 2001). However, because they tend to be premised on homogeneity (either course-based or level-based), critics of the trend argue that it undermines principles of diversity (Angelo & Rivard, 2003). This may be a short-sighted observation, though, since diversity can be achieved through other variables: for example, students studying physics are similar only by course of study but are diverse in other ways. Furthermore, the actual physical architecture of residential housing, commonly ranging from corridor to cluster to pod constructions, must be considered, since this, too, can have integrating or individualizing effects and may or may not contribute to a sense of community (Devlin, Donovan, Nicolov, Nold & Zandan, 2008).

In South Africa, residential learning communities exist in various, largely embryonic, forms at several universities. The only literature which alludes to residential learning communities in South Africa appears to be a presentation made by the Vice Chancellor of Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Derek Swartz, at the 2010 national conference of the South African Chapter of the Association of College and University Housing Officers International (Swartz, 2010). Swartz argued that student residences are of strategic importance because they are ideal locations for both teaching and learning and social and recreational life, not least because they can create a sense of community. He suggested that student residences have, or ought to have, four key functions:

- A pedagogical function – residences are places of teaching and learning, induction and orientation;
- A cultural function – clubs and societies are strongest in student residences;
- A social function – having fun is key to student life; and
- A leadership function – residences are a training ground for student leadership (Swartz, 2010).

Apart from this presentation, the Stakeholder Summit on Higher Education Transformation (DHET, 2010) also makes mention of residential learning communities, in the form of calling for the establishment of living-learning communities within the South African context.

As pointed out above, collaboration between student affairs and academic affairs can provide integrated learning opportunities for students. The less formal environment of the living-learning programme creates a setting where students and faculty can interact within a common area of interest in both prescribed and serendipitous settings. Within these communities, learning is more experiential, heuristic and active, with the intent of integrating the cognitive and affective elements of the student experience (Zeller, 2008:71). Pascarella *et al.* (cited in Frazier & Eighmy, 2012) state that residential living can be a powerful force in shaping both the essential character and the developmental impact of an individual's college or tertiary experience. When compared to their counterparts who live at home and commute to college, students living in residences participate in a greater number of extracurricular, social, and cultural events on campus; and interact more frequently with faculty and peers in informal settings. Pascarella *et al.* (in Frazier & Eighmy, 2012) indicate that these students are significantly more satisfied with the institution and are more positive about the social and interpersonal environment of their campus; are more likely to persist and graduate; and show significantly greater positive gains in such areas of psychosocial development as autonomy and inner-directedness, intellectual values, social and political liberalism, and secularism.

Research indicates many benefits in creating and implementing successful learning communities. Once admitted to a living-learning programme, it is the unique educational activities in which students engage that are believed to help promote learning (Nesheim, Guentzel, Kellogg & McDonald, 2007; Soldner & Szelenyi, 2008; Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Checkoway (2007) finds that engaged learning generally leads to civic development and positive mental health outcomes. Findings from the National Study of Living-Learning Programmes (Inkelas, 2005), show that students in living-learning programmes exhibit many outcomes related to a community of learning.

Living-learning students have more academic and social discussions with their peers; they have more mentoring relationships with faculty; they perceive their residence environment to be more academically and socially supportive; they experience a smoother transition to tertiary education; they are more committed to civic engagement, critical thinking and the application of knowledge. Zhao and Kuh (2004:116) state the positive behaviours linked to learning communities as increased academic effort and outcomes such as promoting openness to diversity, social tolerance, and personal and interpersonal development. In addition, students who actively participate in various out-of-class activities are more likely to connect with an affinity group of peers, which is important for student retention, success and personal development. The authors (Zhao & Kuh, 2004:116) also explain that integrating these diverse academic and social activities into a meaningful whole is also required to convert the experiences into authentic learning. In this way, learning communities operationalize a constructivist approach to knowledge, whereby knowledge is not simply discovered, but socially constructed. Students therefore actively construct and assimilate knowledge through a reciprocal process with their peers. Learning is therefore deeper, more personally relevant and becomes a part of who the student is.

Tinto (1995) suggests that the promotion of learning communities and collaborative learning in higher education may serve to promote not only enhanced learning and persistence, but also the development of citizenship in its broadest sense. Of more immediate concern is the potential impact such pedagogies can have on campus climates and the construction of campus communities that bring people together. Carefully structured learning communities can promote respect for difference – in race, sexual orientation, class – among students and faculty and a deeper appreciation of the ways in which diversity enriches the entire community (Tinto, 1995). Research has shown that living-learning community classes are one of the best locations to implement experiential or active learning through the use of enhanced lectures and short group activities (Braxton, Milem & Sullivan, 2000; Lichtenstein, 2005). The utilization of active learning techniques is associated with students' improved social integration, institutional commitment, and persistence to graduation (Braxton, Milem & Sullivan, 2000).

The co-curricular benefits resulting from the living-learning communities seem to range from the development of social tolerance, social integration, civic engagement, openness to diversity, personal and interpersonal skills, to a sense of citizenship (Inkelas, Soldner, Longerbeam & Leonard, 2008; Inkelas & Weisman, 2003; Tinto, 1995; Zhao & Kuh, 2004). These are qualities and values that are applicable beyond life on campus. These values might encourage more social cognizance in each individual which can lead to productive citizens on a global level. This can result in social change as it can lead to actions which will help individuals or communities function more effectively. Astin and Astin (2000) emphasize that more attention has been drawn to the importance of transforming the organizational and community environment. It therefore seems that social change and social justice as elements in human development are becoming more important. Zhao and Kuh (2004:117) state that learning communities are intentionally structured to help students make two types of connections – the first is encouraging students to connect ideas from different disciplines, which is aided by being co-enrolled in two or more courses. The second connection is the linking of students through ongoing social interactions afforded by being with the same students for an extended period of time. These authors explain that students become members of a community focused on academic content, which allows them to further develop their identity and discover their voice, as well as to integrate what they are learning into their worldview and other academic and social experiences. In summary, learning communities provide a fertile ground for student development through engagement with other influential agents of socialization, such as peers and faculty members (Pike, 2000). The social change that can develop within the co-curricular learning sphere can enhance a sense of social responsibility towards other individuals and communities.

In an attempt to explain the development that occurs in students who participate in living-learning communities, Social Change Theory will be elaborated upon. Social Change Theory is a useful framework to explicate the processes of development of individuals, communities, social movements and, specifically in this context, students in higher education. The Social Change Model of Leadership will be focused upon in an attempt to integrate co-curricular development with Social Change Theory.

2.5 SOCIAL CHANGE THEORY

Before embarking on the theory of social change, it is necessary to fully understand the term. According to Macionis and Gerber (1995) social change is the transformation of culture and social institutions over time. It can be argued that the causes of social change are found both inside and outside of a given society. Four general characteristics represent the process of social change:

1. Social change is inevitable but the rate of change varies between societies;
2. Social change is both intentional and often unplanned;
3. Social change is often controversial; and,
4. Social change has important and unimportant consequences (Macionis & Gerber, 1995).

As indicated in Chapter One, social change often includes acts that aim to improve the human condition or care for the environment. It may also be revealed in the more purposeful ways people work together because they value socially responsible leadership (Burns in Komives, Wagner & Associates, 2009:4). Wagner's (2009) definition has been used for the purpose of this study - social change is defined as the concept that addresses each person's sense of responsibility towards others and the realization that making things better for one pocket of society makes things better for society as a whole.

As a variety of theorists aimed to provide theoretical frameworks for social change, a few of these theories will be briefly discussed. Reeler (2007) describes both development and social change as deeply complex processes. One of the theories attempting to explain social change is the three-fold theory of social change, as developed by Doug Reeler (2007:9).

2.5.1 Three-fold theory of Social Change

Reeler's theory portrays three kinds of change that are inherently a part of the developing state of a social being. The three kinds of change are (Reeler, 2007):

- **Emergent Change** – this concept describes the day-to-day unfolding of life, adaptive and uneven processes of unconscious and conscious learning from experience and the change as a result of that. This applies to individuals, families, communities, organizations and societies adjusting to shifting realities, or trying to improve and enhance what they know and do. This is likely the most prevalent and enduring form of change existing in any life system (Reeler, 2007).
- **Transformative Change** – at some stage in the development of all social beings it is typical for crisis or ‘stuckness’ to develop. This may be the product of a natural process of inner development. Crises may be the products of a social being’s entering into contradictory relationships with his/her world. Transformative change is more about unlearning, or freeing the social being from those relationships and identities, inner and outer, which underpin the crisis and hold back resolution and further healthy development (Reeler, 2007).
- **Projectable Change** – Human beings can identify and solve problems, as well as imagine different possibilities, think themselves and their present stories into preferred futures, being able to project possible outcomes and formulate conscious plans to bring about change towards these. A projected approach tends to succeed where problems, needs and possibilities are more visible, under relative stable conditions and relationships, which are not fraught with crisis or ‘stuckness’ (Reeler, 2007).
- **Interconnecting the three types of change** – No unfolding situation contains an exclusive set of change conditions or one particular kind of inherent change process – there are always complex configurations. But certain conditions do dominate and can be said to support or even precipitate one kind of change or impetus over another, to hold the centre of gravity of developmental processes. These change conditions can and do co-exist with and form a part of the more dominant processes of change (Reeler, 2007).

Another theory which explores the interaction of the environment with the individual, and subsequent development, is the theory of involvement of Astin (1993).

2.5.2 Theory of Involvement

Alexander Astin (1993, 1996) proposed the I-E-O model to describe the theory of involvement: the input-environment-outcome model. The model proposes that outcomes, defined with different emphasis, but mainly around student academic success, are a function of input (the student) and his/her interaction with the university environment. The interaction of the student with his/her environment is central in the theory, not the environment itself. Astin (1985) emphasizes that involvement can be in purely academic but also in social and personal domains. Development is therefore a function of the environmental influence and the active engagement of the student with the opportunities presented. Possible outcomes of development can therefore be students' attributes, competencies, values and aspirations. The theory of involvement of Astin (1993) applies to students' involvement with living-learning communities as they have the opportunity to become involved with their peer group and have important peer interaction around the integration of their academic and social experiences.

A theorist that contributed significantly to the conceptual paradigm of university student development is Vincent Tinto (1993, 1997). His theory of integration will be discussed accordingly.

2.5.3 Theory of Integration

Vincent Tinto (1993, 1997) developed a model of student retention which highlighted interaction with the university context. The theory indicated that the degree of student connectedness is predictive of student retention. A complementary relationship exists between social integration and academic integration, which positively influences persistence and retention (Tinto, 1994:5). The model is dynamic and interactive as the student's goals and intentions are continuously reshaped through interactions with the institution, environment, as well as the academic and social structures. Integration can therefore be defined as the alignment of students' attitudes and values with the social

(peers), the academic (faculty) and the institutional goals. As integration increases, so do the personal goals which, in turn, link the student to the institution (Tinto, 1993).

Research indicated that collaborative learning settings foster norms which promote the notion that individual educational welfare is tied inexorably to the educational welfare and interests of other members of the educational community (Tinto, 2003:6). Tinto's (1993) theory of integration also supports the development of living-learning communities as students are able to achieve integration by being involved in the integration of academic and social experiences, interacting with faculty and peers, and establishing a connection to the university (Tinto, 2003). When Tinto's (1993) integration theory is viewed as a partnership between students and institutions, students are more likely to persist in college (Johnson, Alvarez, Longerbeam, Soldner, Inkelas, Leonard & Rowan-Kenyon, 2007).

In an attempt to integrate student development and socially responsible leadership with social change, the Social Change Model of Leadership will be elaborated upon accordingly. This model emphasizes the need to understand self and others in an effort to create community.

2.5.4 The Social Change Model

The Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM) stresses leadership as a process and is inclusive of all people regardless of their roles (Komives & Wagner, 2009). The SCM has proven to apply concurrently to individuals, groups, and communities or organizations (HERI in Komives, 2011). Although not widely known outside of student affairs work within higher education, it is the most used model in co-curricular programmes for student leadership since the mid-1990s and serves as a useful model to guide student affairs practice (Komives, 2011:359).

An important aspect of the SCM is that it focuses on the strong connection between getting involved in social change and learning leadership. A leader in this context is one who is able to affect positive change and all people thus have the potential to be leaders (Wagner, 2009). For the purpose of this study, the SCM as theoretical model

is not used to conceptualize leadership but to provide a specific focus on the social change occurring within living-learning communities. The approach of the SCM to leadership is a process which is purposeful, collaborative and values-based resulting in positive social change. The model is congruent with professional values in student affairs and affirming of a social justice commitment to professional practice (Komives, Wagner & Associates, 2009). The two primary goals of SCM can be summarized as follows (HERI in Komives *et al.* 2009:xiii):

- a) To enhance student learning and development, more specifically, to develop each student in terms of self-knowledge (understanding one's talents, values, interests) and leadership competence (the capacity to empower oneself and others to serve and work collaboratively);
- b) To facilitate positive social change at the institution or community, by undertaking actions which will help the institution or community to function more effectively and more humanely (HERI in Komives *et al.* 2009:xiii).

Morton (in Komives *et al.*, 2009) explains that one way to describe the concept of social change has been to contrast it with charity and sporadic volunteerism. While these latter approaches often provide needed services and create opportunities for members of communities to engage with one other at a personal level, they run the risk of creating dependencies and ultimately the community problem continues. The two criteria that distinguish social change from charity are giving attention to the root of problems and collaboration with others.

The long term benefit of living-learning communities reaches far beyond the confines of those who will gain directly from the activities, and therefore contributes to the development of socially responsible leadership. In retrospect, the four theories (Astin, 1993; Komives *et al.*, 2009; Reeler, 2007; Tinto, 1993) provided a theoretical framework for social change from different perspectives.

Yet, for the purpose of this study, the SCM is regarded as the most appropriate model to contextualize the LLL programme and its outcomes as the model's focus is on the role of social change rather than leadership development. The SCM provides a sphere for the development of students as agents of change. One aspect of Reeler's (2007) theory that can contribute to contextualizing the LLL programme is the matter

of transformative change. Reeler (2007) explains it as all social beings during development experiencing a crisis and transformative change is more about freeing the social being from those relationships and identities, to stimulate further healthy development. As the LLL programme aims to develop students as agents of change, transformative change is essential in furthering healthy development and overcoming challenging or crisis moments.

As the SCM is the model to contextualize the LLL programme, a more comprehensive discussion on the model will follow. The SCM includes three levels and accompanying values: individual, group and community (Haber, 2011:67). Refer to Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Values of the Social Change Model of Leadership

The Seven C's: The Critical Values of the Social Change Model	
Consciousness of Self	Being self-aware of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate you to take action. Being mindful, or aware of your current emotional state, behavior and perceptual lenses.
Congruence	Acting in ways that are consistent with your values and beliefs. Thinking, feeling, and behaving with consistency, genuineness, authenticity and honesty towards others.
Commitment	Having significant investment in an idea or person, both in terms of intensity and duration. Having the energy to serve the group and its goal. Commitment originates from within, but others can create an environment that supports an individual's passions.
Collaboration	Working with others in a common effort, sharing responsibility, authority. Multiplying group effectiveness by capitalizing on various perspectives and talents, and on the power of diversity to generate creative solutions and actions.
Common Purpose	Having shared aims and values. Involving others in building a group's vision and purpose.
Controversy with Civility	Recognizing two fundamental realities of any creative effort: (1) that differences in viewpoint are inevitable, and (2) that such differences must be aired openly with civility.
Citizenship	Believing in a process whereby an individual and/or group become responsibly connected to the community and to society through some activity. Recognizing that members of communities are not independent, but interdependent. Recognizing individuals and

groups have responsibility for the welfare of others.	
<i>Since it is a key assumption of the SCM that the ultimate goal of leadership is positive social change, “change” is considered to be the hub of the model.</i>	
Change	Believing in the importance of making a better world and a better society for oneself and others. Believing that individuals, groups, and communities have the ability to work together to make that change.

(Haber, 2011:67)

The individual values involve qualities of individuals that contribute to positive group functioning, the group values reflect group skills and processes that contribute to affecting positive change, and the community value focuses on the greater community’s needs. These three levels interact and together contribute to the overall goal of the model: positive social change. Group interaction is inherent in this model and is particularly stressed in the group values of the model (Haber, 2011:67). The dynamic nature of the model is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

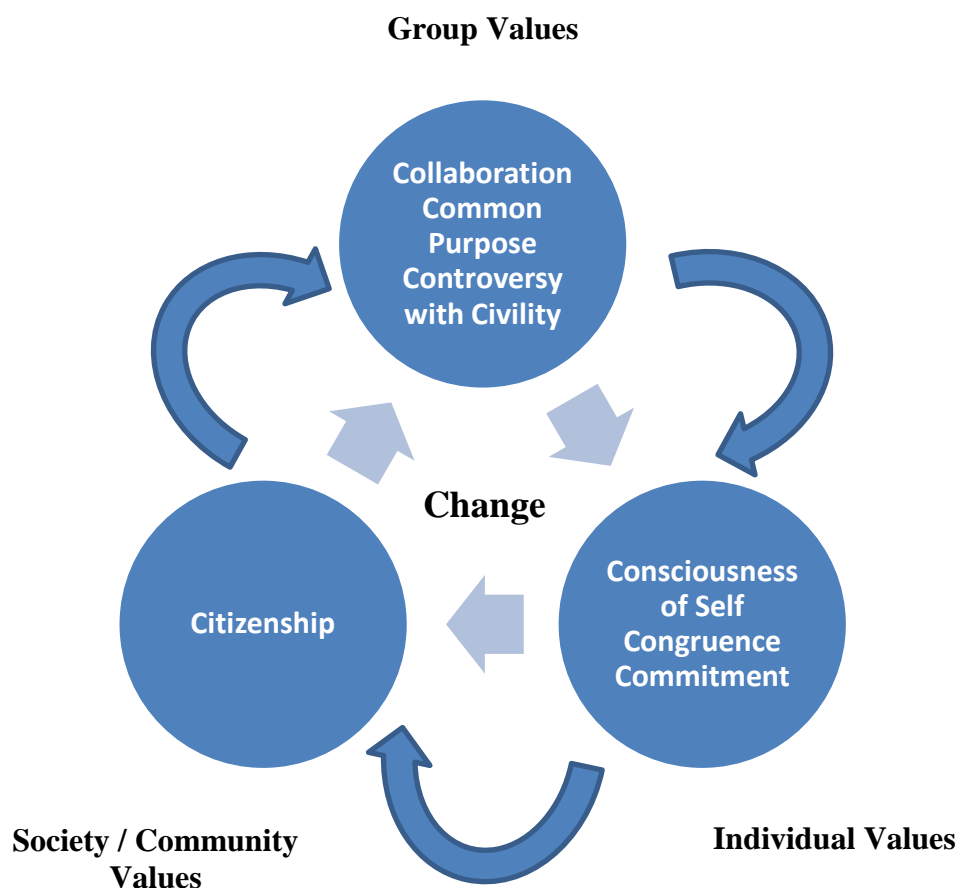


Figure 2.1 The reciprocity of the SCM

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, each dimension of the model is in dynamic reciprocity with the other dimensions. If a group is unable to come to common purpose (group dimension), it might examine how committed the individuals are to the group (individual dimension) and ask individuals to examine why they are exhibiting resistance (individual dimension) if they cannot come to common purpose. The SCM can become a diagnostic process model to explore how an organization functions or an individual assessment model to examine personal capacity building (Schuh *et al.*, 2011:361).

Research indicated that students taking part in social change activities reported the following benefits – a personal connection with the relevant issue was established, connection with the others involved, a sense of interconnectedness developed, by helping others the individual is also helping him/herself and a sense of satisfaction was established (Wagner, 2009). Despite the urgent needs of many communities across the globe, younger generations seem to be expressing more optimism about social change. They also are more action orientated and less politically inclined than previous generations (Watson, Hollister, Stroud & Babcock, 2011:28). The development of a variety of attributes in a co-curricular setting has been emphasized, specifically with reference to social change. The integration of the academic and social experiences, possibly within a living-learning community, has been applauded by a variety of authors.

Pike, Schroeder and Berry (1994) emphasize that membership in residential learning communities enhance overall involvement in educationally purposeful activities, which in turn directly and positively affect indicators of student success. Keeling (2004:3-6) states that historically educational practice has emphasized information transfer from faculty to student without a great deal of thought given to the meaning, pertinence, or application of the information in the context of the student's life. The author continues by stating that members of the academic faculty and student affairs educators must be prepared to assess and change their work. It is quite realistic to consider the entire campus as a learning community in which student learning experiences can be mapped throughout the environment to deepen the quality of learning (Keeling, 2004:13). The researcher strongly agrees with Keeling's statement

on considering the entire campus as a learning community and providing opportunities for students to experience transformative change.

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has as its purpose the articulation of the student housing sphere from an international and national perspective. As higher education is faced with new challenges in terms of student needs, diversity and learning, learning communities as a model integrating curricular and co-curricular development were discussed. Social change as a collective term for a variety of co-curricular skills was highlighted where after several theories of social change were discussed. The Social Change Model of Leadership was discussed as a model to contextualize the LLL programme and transformative change through the LLL experience was emphasized and should be advocated in every higher education setting.

The next chapter aims to elaborate on the context of the specific study by focusing on higher education specifically in the South African realm, Stellenbosch University and the Listening, Living and Learning senior student housing programme as an example of a transformative educational model.

CHAPTER 3

THE LISTENING, LIVING AND LEARNING PROGRAMME AS A LEARNING COMMUNITY AT STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa has a long and multi-layered history of colonialism, culminating in over four decades of legalized discrimination under the apartheid state. The result is a society rife with inequalities (Bray & Moses, 2011). Boughey (2004:1) emphasizes that with the enormity of the shift from apartheid to democracy, any discussion of South Africa's education system has tended to be dominated by the word 'transformation'. Since the late 1980's, when it first became evident that an end to apartheid was inevitable, the South African higher education system has been subject to enormous changes. Some of these changes have resulted from legislation enacted by the democratic government elected in 1994. Other changes, however, have emanated from pressures at a global level which now impact on South Africa as a member of the international community, as well as from social and economic shifts within the country itself (Boughey, 2004:1).

It is not an exaggeration to say that the higher education landscape, both globally and in South Africa, is changing rapidly. Since the inception of the modern university about 800 years ago, its central occupation has been the production, transmission and acquisition of knowledge. In the contemporary university this primary occupation has not changed. What has changed is the nature of knowledge production, transmission and acquisition, and the way that knowledge is legitimated and valued (Le Grange, 2009). Within the changing educational landscape, Borst (2011:1) adds that calls for accountability in higher education have created a renewed emphasis on undergraduate education and focused institutional efforts on student learning outside the classroom. Kilpatrick, Barrett and Jones (2003:7-8) emphasize that learning through interactions with others in a learning community can build social capital (defined as norms, values and networks that can be used for mutual benefit). Social capital, in turn, facilitates learning by fostering trust, shared values, personal development, a sense of identity and access to the knowledge of others through networks that form a sound basis for sharing knowledge and skills; that is for collaboration and learning together.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the co-curricular sphere, or out-of-class experience, fosters collaborative learning as well as the integration of social and academic experiences. The intentionally structured living environments, living-learning communities, are the medium through which the boundaries between in-class and out-of-class experiences are blurred. Zeller (2006:59) noted that “campus residential environments may well become the setting where the most deep learning interactions will occur, as students and faculty are able to fully exploit the potential of living-learning opportunities”. The LLL programme is a type of learning community and this chapter aims to set the scene for the conducted research.

A brief overview of higher education in South Africa is provided where after a historical overview of Stellenbosch University, building on the introduction in Chapter One, will be given. As out-of-class experiences fall within the realm of student affairs, the role of the Centre for Student Communities at SU will be explored. The LLL programme aims to socially integrate students, therefore diversity and relevant constructs will be integrated in a reflective discussion. In conclusion, as a learning community and as research unit of this study, the LLL programme will be elaborated upon and critically discussed.

3.2 HIGHER EDUCATION AND STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY: A HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In order to provide a deeper understanding of the sort of changes that are called for at universities in South Africa, the national context of higher education will be briefly discussed.

3.2.1 Higher education in South Africa

Historically, South Africa’s higher education sector primarily targeted and served a minority ethnic group. These same institutions now have to strive to ensure the equitable representation, in their student and staff components, of all South Africans; and South Africans are by no means homogenous in terms of economic, educational or social attributes (Mdepa & Tshiwula, 2012:20).

In South Africa, the period between 1948 and 1993 was characterized by legalised unequal separate development, named ‘apartheid’ – a deliberate and gradual adoption of increasingly racist policies and laws that legitimised many discriminatory practices (Mdepa & Tshiwula, 2012: 20). The apartheid system resulted in a split along the lines of race since the apartheid government had devised a system intended to meet the ‘needs’ of the different race groups in South Africa, with the result that higher education institutions were designated white, black, coloured and Indian, according to the population group they were intended to serve (Boughey, 2004:1).

In the course of its 45-year rule, building upon 350 years of colonialism, the apartheid government institutionalized a higher education landscape consisting of 36 universities, 15 technikons, and approximately 140 single-discipline vocational colleges (nursing, education and agriculture). African, coloured and Indian students, collectively forming the largest demographic group, were not allowed to pursue studies in the so-called ‘white’ institutions. In addition, some ‘white’ institutions (such as the University of Cape Town) were reserved mainly for English-speakers, while others (such as the University of Stellenbosch and the University of the Free State) catered mainly for Afrikaans-speaking students (Mdepa & Tshiwula, 2012:21). Sedgwick (2004) states that during this time the higher education sector was predicated on the persistence of inequality, and characterized by highly fragmented, incoherent and uncoordinated policy and planning. Apartheid was abolished in 1994 and the higher education system has been extensively restructured since then – for example, several higher education institutions merged in 2005 (Mdepa & Tshiwula, 2012:21). Currently there are 23 public higher education institutions (HEIs) in South Africa. Of these, 11 are generally regarded as ‘traditional’ universities, 6 are universities of technology (which were formerly known as technikons) and 6 are comprehensive universities (established from the merger of traditional universities and former technikons) (Statistics on Post School Education and Training in South Africa, 2011).

After the legal dismantling of apartheid, several policy processes were put in place aimed at transforming higher education. Central to these processes was the need for higher education to respond to two broad challenges: its contribution to redressing

inequities of the past and its response to the demands of an economically competitive ‘global society’. Key policy papers that were produced after 1994 were the following (Le Grange, 2009:108):

- a) The final report of the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE), entitled ‘*A Framework for Transformation*’ (1996);
- b) The Department of Education’s ‘*Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation*’ (DoE, 1996);
- c) The *Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education* (DoE, 1997); and
- d) The *Higher Education Act* of 1997.

These policies stipulated the necessity of transformation in higher education in order to redress past inequalities, provide access to education for those who were historically disadvantaged and develop a learning society. The Education White Paper 3 (DoE, 1997:7) clearly indicates the vision of the Ministry in terms of access, equity, transformation and diversity for higher education:

“A transformed, democratic, non-racial and non-sexist system of higher education is envisaged that will:

- a) promote equity of access and fair chances of success to all who are seeking to realise their potential through higher education, while eradicating all forms of unfair discrimination and advancing redress for past inequalities;
- b) meet, through well-planned and co-ordinated teaching, learning and research programmes, national development needs, including the high-skilled employment needs presented by a growing economy operating in a global environment;
- c) support a democratic ethos and a culture of human rights by educational programmes and practices conducive to critical discourse and creative thinking, cultural tolerance, and a common commitment to a humane, non-racist and non-sexist social order;
- d) contribute to the advancement of all forms of knowledge and scholarship, and in particular address the diverse problems and demands of the local, national, southern African and African contexts, and uphold rigorous standards of academic quality” (DoE, 1997:7).

In 2001, the Ministry of Education's '*National Plan for Higher Education*' estimated participation rates in higher education to be 15% and set the target of 20% participation in the next 10 – 15 years (DoE, 2001). Benatar (2010) reports that from 2010 access to higher education has been improving and the 18-24 cohort is approaching a 20% participation rate. However, if these figures are analysed more closely, there is still a clear racial divide: the participation rate for whites is at 60%, and more than half of Indians in this age range are enrolled in higher education; yet the rate for black students stands at 11% and for coloureds at merely 7%. The challenges of access, diversity, retention and success in higher education need to be addressed in order to give realisation to a truly diverse knowledge society. Against the backdrop of higher education in South Africa, Stellenbosch University and its history will be briefly elaborated upon.

3.2.2 A historical view on Stellenbosch University

The history of Stellenbosch University (SU) dates as far back as the 17th century, when regular school education was initiated in the town of Stellenbosch in 1685. With the start of the Theological Seminary of the Dutch Reformed Church in 1859, higher education became established in the town. In December 1863, the foundation was laid for the establishment of the Stellenbosch Gymnasium, which became a reality in 1866 (Stellenbosch University, 2013a).

Less than a decade after the establishment of the Gymnasium, in 1874, the so-called Arts Department was founded. The Department started out with 120 scholars and two professors of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, and Classical and English Literature respectively. In 1879, the decision was made to build a proper college building to create more teaching space. The new building was inaugurated on 6 November 1886 and renamed Victoria College in 1887 in honor of Queen Victoria's golden jubilee, the 50-year celebration of her ascent to the British Throne. Over the period 1897 – 1900, Victoria College was transformed with the construction of various facilities such as the Physics laboratory, the Christian Marais library and buildings for Education and Science. A college expansion scheme initiated in 1904 led to the establishment of research chairs in Zoology, Botany, History and Applied

Mathematics. In 1911, the first professor of Education was appointed (Stellenbosch University, 2013a).

The adoption of the University Act in 1916 by the then Union of South Africa Parliament paved the way for the establishment of an independent university. On 2 April 1918, Victoria College became Stellenbosch University thanks to a £100 000 donation by a local benefactor, Mr Jan Marais at Coetzenburg. Today, his statue can be seen on the Red Square on mid-campus, while his Victorian residence on Coetzenburg houses the Matie Sport division. By 1917, Victoria College had 503 students and 40 lecturing staff. In the subsequent decades, the number of students and staff at Stellenbosch University drastically increased and its academic offering expanded to the current ten faculties – AgriSciences, Economic and Management Sciences, Medical and Health Sciences, Engineering, Military Sciences, Arts and Social Sciences, Science, Education, Law and Theology – spread over the five campuses. By the beginning of 2013, the institution had a student body of 28 000 (including more than 3000 foreign students), a lecturing staff complement of 939, and some 50 research and service divisions (Stellenbosch University, 2013b).

SU was a racially exclusive institution for white students only until the early 1990s although a small number of black students were admitted since the late 1970's. According to Kalley, Schoeman and Andor (1999) the University announced on 11 June 1977 that it was to open its doors to Black, Coloured and Asian students for all post-graduate degrees and that it would also accept non-White undergraduates for courses not offered at their own universities. In spite of the move being hailed as a progressive one, critics were of the view that the move was meant only for those who could speak Afrikaans, as the University used mainly Afrikaans as medium of instruction. Undoubtedly, language is a very important and controversial issue at SU, eliciting a variety of opinions (and emotions). The University acknowledges that for most of its existence the ethnic exclusivity of the institution was guaranteed and reinforced by the fact that it adopted Afrikaans as a medium of instruction (Van Wyk, 2009:339).

The call for Stellenbosch to remain a mainly single-medium Afrikaans institution was backed by a committee headed by Dr Jakes Gerwel, who was appointed by former education minister Kader Asmal. In 2001 the committee recommended that the government give two universities (Stellenbosch and Potchefstroom) a special mandate to promote Afrikaans as a language of instruction and research “consciously and systematically” (Giliomee, 2009). Public support for Stellenbosch as an institution using mainly Afrikaans as the medium of instruction has also come from leading educationalists Neville Alexander and Kathleen Heugh; the executive committee of the convocation of Stellenbosch alumni; a petition of 3500 students; a number of prominent Afrikaans writers, including Breyten Breytenbach and André Brink; and by business leader Koos Bekker. Dr Frederik van Zyl Slabbert, the former Stellenbosch University chancellor, described the University’s version of dual medium as “an academic absurdity” (Giliomee, 2009). The language debate continued, and still remains a pivotal discussion point, especially as a new Language Model for SU has recently been approved by the SU Council. The Language Model of the University of Stellenbosch seeks to contribute, as a future-oriented policy, to the realisation of the ideal of creating a favourable learning and instruction environment for the benefit of the students; an environment within which Afrikaans as an academic language and the asset of multilingualism are combined in an imaginative way (Stellenbosch University, 2013c).

The observation can be made, however, that language at SU accounts for a major part of the institutional culture, and remains a challenging factor for the diversifying of its student and staff profile (Van Wyk, 2009:341). Professor Chris Brink (2005), former Rector of Stellenbosch University, articulated that Stellenbosch was one of the main intellectual sources of apartheid. The association of the University with the power structures of *Afrikanerdom* was, for a long time, a close one. The term ‘*Afrikanerdom*’ can be defined as Afrikaner nationalism based on pride in the Afrikaans language and culture, conservative Calvinism, and a sense of heritage as pioneers (Collins English Dictionary, 2009). DF Malan, the first apartheid Prime Minister, was a Stellenbosch alumnus. John Vorster was a prominent student leader who later, as Prime Minister, became Chancellor of the University. Rectors of the University were typically

prominent members of the *Afrikaner Broederbond*¹. The organization had one main aim: to further Afrikaner nationalism in South Africa – to maintain Afrikaner culture, develop an Afrikaner economy, and to gain control of the South African government (African History, 2013). In summary, the institutional culture at SU was influenced by a sense of exclusivity, the language controversy and an association with apartheid. In the light of the abovementioned context, the University prioritized transformation and initiated change on a variety of levels within the institution.

During 2005, SU enrolled students' perceptions about the pace of change at SU was surveyed by CREST (2005:vii). The key findings are the following:

- a) White Afrikaans-speaking students are largely divided over transformation at SU. Similar proportions believe that transformation is being handled responsibly or somewhat irresponsibly;
- b) White non-Afrikaans-speaking students also fall into two groups – one group that feels that transformation is being conducted in a responsible manner (47%) and a second group that feels that the rate of transformation is unsatisfactory (42%). Interestingly, this profile is very similar for black, coloured and Indian Afrikaans speaking students;
- c) The largest percentage of non-Afrikaans-speaking black, coloured and Indian students (60%) do not believe that SU is being adequately transformed. There is, however, also a large percentage (36%) of this sub-group who believe that SU is not only being transformed, but that this is also being done in a responsible manner.

The negative perceptions, in terms of the key findings of the CREST survey, are concerning. Van Wyk (2009:344) emphasizes that there is still a great challenge for the institution to free itself from the historical and ideological burdens of the past.

In its post-apartheid history SU continues to be closely associated with the Afrikaans-speaking community, albeit the broader Afrikaans-speaking community (i.e both coloured and white Afrikaans-speakers). The fact that SU's current Rector and Vice-Chancellor is an Afrikaans-speaking coloured South African – appointed in 2007 as the first Vice-Chancellor who is not from the white community – gives significant

¹ The *Afrikaner Broederbond* is an Afrikaans term meaning “league of Afrikaner brothers”.

symbolic and practical expression to the continued association with the Afrikaans-speaking community (Müller, 2012). Professor H. Russel Botman, current Rector and Vice-Chancellor of SU, summarized his vision for the university in his 2007 inaugural address: “We can only feel satisfied that there is fair access when the daughter of the farm worker has the same future opportunities as the son of the farmer” (Stellenbosch University, 2013d). The moral obligation and social responsibility of the University were echoed in these words, and they emphasized the importance of an institutional culture which facilitates the interaction of diverse groups. Toma (in Van Wyk, 2009:344) explains that institutional culture does the following: it conveys a sense of identity (who we are), facilitates commitment (what we stand for), enhances stability (how we do things around here), guides sense-making (how we understand events), and defines authority (who is influential). The researcher is of the opinion that a shift to an institutional culture embracing transformation has the power to change perceptions of the University.

Due to SU’s history and association with exclusivity and apartheid, transformation in terms of diversity is vital. Many universities around the world have responded to the question: ‘Can we solve big problems?’ by instituting transformation, educational reforms and developing new modes of knowledge production for society (Watson, Hollister, Stroud & Babcock, 2011:28). In March 2010, the Taillores Network gathered higher education leaders from across the globe at the Rockefeller Foundation Bellagio Centre to discuss future developments in community engagement. At that session, Professor Botman emphasized that younger generations were no longer interested in old political battles, but in new forms of engagement and development. Citing Paulo Freire’s *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, he stated, “We must move from the pedagogy of the oppressed to the new pedagogy of hope. We must believe in the triumph of possibility over limitations”. It is this essential shift in thinking about the university mission that is driving transformation at Stellenbosch University (Watson, Hollister *et al.*, 2011:28).

In order to diversify its student profile, SU is following a dual approach. Firstly, due to historical challenges in secondary teaching, SU has both launched its own and supported other initiatives to help equip Grade 11 and Grade 12 learners for university

studies. These initiatives are therefore aimed at prospective students. Secondly, student success, especially in the first academic year, is of paramount importance to the University. Various initiatives on campus offer academic support to all enrolled students, with a particular focus on students from educationally disadvantaged communities (Stellenbosch University, 2013d). Some of the initiatives offering support and aiming to enhance diversity are the following (Stellenbosch University, 2013e):

- *Maties on the Plain*

A tutor and guidance programme by educators to grade 12 learners from ten schools in the Mitchell's Plain area has been established. Mitchell's Plain is a predominantly low socio-economic, coloured area near Cape Town;

- *SciMathUS*

The bridging programme helps students from educationally disadvantaged communities to gain access to higher education and also prepares these students for success in their tertiary studies. The programme has a focus on Mathematics and Physical Sciences;

- *Bursaries for recruitment of students*

The recruitment bursary project is an institutional project coordinated by the Centre for Prospective Students in cooperation with the Division Bursaries and Loans. The primary goal is to recruit coloured, African and Indian (CAI) students with the best possible potential for successful study at Stellenbosch University.

- *Thuthuka programme*

Apart from awarding bursaries, the Centre for Prospective Students has partnered with Thuthuka, a transformation initiative of the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants, to present the SU Thuthuka programme for black students in an effort to help promote diversity.

- *Rachel's Angels*

Students from educationally disadvantaged schools are recruited through a special initiative called Rachel's Angels, led by SU's Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. The initiative is offered in conjunction with Media24.

- *Imbewu-GESOG*

The Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences presents an annual recruitment and outreach programme called Imbewu-GESOG, aimed at students from historically disadvantaged communities. This constitutes an integral part of the Faculty's student recruitment for the fields of medicine and related health sciences. The programme has a 50% success rate in terms of recruitment.

- *First Year Academy*

One of the unique aspects of Stellenbosch University is the First-year Academy, an initiative that focuses specifically on success in the first year. The Academy entails a large variety of activities that are coordinated in a purposeful way (Stellenbosch University, 2013e).

Additional initiatives include a *First Generation Student Success Camp*, where first year students enrolling at SU as the first generation in their family to attend tertiary education, are prepared for the demands of higher education (Stellenbosch University, 2013e). *Extended Degree Programmes (EDPs)* are also available for students. These programmes are designed to broaden access by creating alternative routes for students who, due to disadvantaged educational backgrounds, have failed to meet the all faculty specific entry requirements. The programmes contribute to students' eventual success by offering integrated support in the form of foundation modules (Centre for Teaching and Learning, 2013).

However, although a vast variety of recruitment and support initiatives are in place to diversify the University and to enhance student success, it is not sufficient to increase the numbers of African, coloured and Indian students to SU. These students need to feel part of the institutional culture and the social climate. The promotion of diversity and social integration among students is therefore a very important factor in establishing an institutional culture that is inclusive.

One intervention aimed at achieving this is the LLL programme, being directed at minimizing stereotyping and discrimination among students. It is posited on the idea that if people of different races, or ethnicities, or religion, interact and engage with one another on an equal level, then less stereotyping by them will occur (Kloppers, Dunn & Smorenburg, 2012). The expectation is that the learning that students receive from their involvement in LLL will be transferred to peers in their immediate

environments, but also ultimately to city, country and continent as they go on to take up leadership roles outside the institution (Kloppers, Dunn & Smorenburg, 2012). The sense of leadership that is cultivated within the LLL programme is socially responsible leadership with a focus on social change. Due to the institutional culture of SU, social integration within the out-of-class experience proves to be quite challenging. As student affairs plays an important role in the cultivating and enhancement of the out-of-class experience, the next section elaborates on the role of student affairs within higher education and specifically focuses on the Centre for Student Communities at Stellenbosch University.

3.3 THE ROLE OF STUDENT AFFAIRS

Sandeep (2004:28) argues that the current context of higher education presents student affairs with many challenges. The ever-changing role of student affairs has become more complex due to the diversity of the age, ethnic, academic and financial background of students. Yet, student development practitioners have always attempted to review priorities and develop new structures and strategies to support and serve students in a variety of educational settings.

Student affairs generally focuses on all things related to the student and the student's life in the institution, mostly outside of the classroom. It also refers to the administrative unit of the institution which houses and focuses on student programmes, activities, functions and services (Helfgot, 2005:7). Student affairs usually comprises student services which are described as co-curricular or non-academic in nature (Lumadi & Mampuru, 2010). Blimling (2001) explains several paradigm shifts in student affairs have taken place in the past fifty years. These range from a service-oriented approach, with student affairs providing services to students and faculty in what is essentially an auxiliary services model, to a perspective that promotes a full partnership with faculty as professionals focused on student learning. These paradigms have not followed one another in orderly fashion, and indeed, different paradigms exist on campuses across the landscape of higher education.

The founding perspective of student affairs is to focus education on the whole student. The changing student population and the growing societal expectation of one-to-one

customization create challenges for student affairs in particular. A well-developed skill of student affairs professionals is their anticipation of the environment's impact on students and their ability to address students' academic and personal needs. A hallmark of student affairs is to anticipate the different variables and the impact they may have on student success (Dungy & Gordon, 2011). Schreiber (2012) investigated the scope, role and function of Student Development and Support (SDS) within higher education in South Africa. SDS usually comprises student services which are described as co-curricular or non-academic in nature, student affairs therefore forms part of SDS. One of the core findings in the study was that SDS represents an indispensable and valuable resource to the HEIs in terms of partnering to deliver on the shared goals of higher education (Schreiber, 2012:255). This author also found that SDS structures are not matched to the organisational structures of higher education. An improved match would promote an engagement with current discourses in higher education, reflecting a shift in the understanding of student engagement and other factors impacting on the student experience (Schreiber, 2012:255). It seems that the voice of student affairs is not adequately heard in higher education and that a lack of integration with the curricular aspects is evident. Schreiber (2012:261) recommends that the emerging discourse, including loosely defined terms such as 'global citizenship', need to be deliberately explored in relation to SDS scope, role and function. The researcher agrees with this statement as it is one of the core reasons why the current study has been conducted. As an intervention strategy to enhance diversity at SU, the outcomes of the LLL programme should be empirically researched in order to confirm or disconfirm the outcomes, and adjust where necessary.

The Listening, Living and Learning programme is an initiative of and strongly embedded within the student affairs sphere. At SU the division for Student and Academic Support (SAS) consists of six centres of which the Centre of Student Communities is one (Kloppers, 2011). The rationale for the existence of Student and Academic Support as an overarching structure for a group of centres and the Tracking Unit is to be able to offer systemic-holistic academic support to students and lecturers, to bring related centres together in a close working relationship, to establish a connection with potential students while they are still at school, and to optimise co-

operation amongst all role-players (especially the faculties) (Botha, 2011). Three of the centres in the Division for Student and Academic Support that have primary responsibility for student development and support are the Centre for Student Counselling and Development (CSCD), the Centre for Student Affairs (CSA) and the Centre for Student Communities (CSC). Whereas the CSCD primarily provides counselling services to individual students, and the CSA mainly works with student leaders and leadership development, the mission of CSC is to develop students with the necessary knowledge, skills, experience, and confidence to help form and support healthy communities. Healthy communities refer to inclusive, democratic and well-functioning communities, and include those that students are currently part of and those that they will be part of when they leave the University (Kloppers, 2013). The Centre for Student Communities focuses on providing student housing, developing students in residences and private lodging by providing co-curricular activities, empowering them in value-driven leadership, integrating academic and social functioning of students as well as developing them into students who enable positive social change. The Centre for Student Communities aims at providing a community experience for students, enabling residences and private wards to become part of communities. The core responsibilities of the Centre for Student Communities are illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.



Figure 3.1 Core Responsibilities of CSC

The management philosophy of CSC is that of value driven management. The process of using value driven management is well established in the different student communities – referring to residences and Private Student Organizations (PSO's). The PSO's are wards that cater specifically for the needs of the commuting students on campus.

The effective management of the different areas that involve student communities is an area where SU is, however, only moderately successful. The reason for this is that the management of student life in residences and PSO wards, the placement of students in residences, the delivering of cleaning and catering services, the maintenance of residences, the budgeting of student housing and the provision of laundry facilities is done by three different departments with their own missions and management philosophies. As not all role players involved share the ideal sense of value driven management, the students' experience might be fragmented (Kloppers, 2011).

CSC is responsible for student housing on campus and manages the integration of students' learning and living environments in a systemic-holistic manner to augment students' academic success. The objectives of the Centre include the renewal of student culture in view of increasing diversity and the establishment of inclusive, value-driven management in the residences, organisations for students who do not stay in residences, and clusters (where residence and non-residence students are grouped together). The Centre strives to establish a culture of the "*University as Conversation*" in the context of the residential education initiative (ResEd). A ResEd group is a number of residences or living areas (PSO wards included) that are geographically grouped together and includes both male and female students. The ResEd initiative aims to support the integrated learning concept by bringing two worlds together in creating spaces where courageous conversations for residential and non-residential students can take place (Kloppers, 2011). The undergraduate students are therefore organised in informal learning communities (clusters), as part of the ResEd principle. However, in the researcher's experience, senior students tend to not fully participate in the cluster concept. When students leave the residences after two or three years, they tend to withdraw from campus life. Senior students also tend to

participate less in PSO activities even though they might have been actively involved during their undergraduate years. The researcher is concerned about these students and their limited exposure to living-learning communities as their participation in campus organized activities decline. The development of co-curricular and curricular skills remains important and a living-learning community focusing on senior students can therefore be a possible way to address this lacuna.

The researcher is employed at the Centre for Student Communities in the capacity of Deputy Director and manages the Listening, Living and Learning programme. The LLL programme is an attempt to create student communities, via senior student housing, to provide an experiential educational experience and stimulate dialogue about challenging topics. LLL is one of the first of its kind in the province, country and continent and the aim is to provide the best growth experience that student living can offer at university (Cornelissen, Dunn & Kloppers, 2011).

One of the main aims of the Centre of Student Communities is to provide co-curricular activities embedded within curricular activities. The researcher is of the opinion that the student housing structures provided, as well as the programmes presented within student housing, must be conducive for the integration of curricular and co-curricular learning, as well as providing meaningful engagement to enhance student development and enabling students to contribute to positive social change. The LLL programme is an example of such integration for senior students, as well as an intervention targeted at diversifying students, and will be explored accordingly.

3.4 THE LISTENING, LIVING AND LEARNING PROGRAMME: PROMOTING DIVERSITY

The LLL programme at SU is an experiential learning programme that aids students in identifying and adjusting perceptions of ‘the other’ (those who are different from them). It is an initiative with its core element being the diversifying of students and enabling them to embrace diversity within an experiential context. A reflection of diversity will be provided as a theoretical framework for the LLL programme where after the programme will be discussed.

3.4.1 A reflection on diversity

Diversity is most often considered in racial and ethnic dimensions, certainly due to the stark change from almost exclusively white campuses in the early twentieth century to the multicultural campuses of today (Chang, Millem & Antonio, 2011:45). However, the dynamics of diversity is inherent in every student interaction and encompasses much more than just racial and ethnic dimensions. A diverse student body is usually considered to be one in which a number of different cultures are represented and practiced, and an understanding of how to harness student diversity in the context of access, participation and social cohesion is crucial. By their nature, diverse societies are complex and prone to conflicts of interest; hence, a view of diversity simply as a source of richness and variety can be naive and simplistic (Mdepa & Tshiwula, 2012).

According to Milem, Chang and Antonio (2005:6) the vitality, stimulation and educational potential of an institution are directly related to the composition of its student body, faculty and staff. The distribution of individuals in a particular organizational context plays a crucial role in shaping the dynamics of social interactions that occur in these contexts. Chang (1999) found that, with regard to higher education institutions (HEIs) the likelihood of students engaging with students who are from different backgrounds increases as the compositional diversity of the campus increases. Hurtado, Dey and Trevino (in Milem, Chang & Antonio, 2005) explain that campuses with high proportions of white students provide limited opportunities for cross-racial interaction and restrict student learning experiences across social and cultural lines. On campuses that lack a diverse population of students, underrepresented groups have an increased chance of being viewed as tokens. Tokenism contributes to the enhanced visibility of underrepresented groups, the exaggeration of group differences and the alteration of images to fit existing stereotypes. On predominantly white campuses, the fact that students of colour are underrepresented can produce both negative social stigma and “minority status stressors” that adversely affect student achievement (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001; Smedley, Myers & Harrell, 1993). The institutional culture of campuses with, for example, predominantly white students can influence the sense of belonging of the minority groups as the institutional culture will be perceived as the dominant culture.

The diversity of culture is influenced by the complexity of its composition. The concept of a *dominant* culture refers to the culture of the most influential group in society. The dominant culture needs not to be supported by the majority of a society's people as their culture, but rather, it is the culture of the group that is powerful enough to define the cultural framework. Social norms or institutions perpetuate the dominant culture and thereby legitimise it (Anderson & Taylor, 2004:70). *Subcultures* usually co-exist with dominant cultures and they often share some characteristics. Predominantly they represent parts of the population whose cultural system differs from that of the dominant culture. By preference they often, but not necessarily always, have distinctly different sets of norms and ways of life (Anderson & Tyler, 2004:71). Perceptions regarding minority groups, or the subcultures, unfortunately lead to negative associations and stereotyping.

Stereotypes can be defined as psychological representations of the characteristics of people that belong to particular groups (McGarty, Yzerbyt & Spears, 2002). There are three principles guiding the social psychology of stereotyping. No perspective shares all principles to the same degree, rather different perspectives sample from each of the principles to greater or lesser degrees. The three guiding principles are as follows:

- Stereotypes are aids to explanations – this implies that stereotypes form to help the perceiver make sense of a situation;
- Stereotypes are energy-saving devices – the role of a stereotype in this principle is to form to reduce effort on the part of the perceiver;
- Stereotypes are shared group beliefs – this implies that stereotypes should be formed in line with the accepted views or norms of social groups that the perceiver belongs to (McGarty *et al.*, 2002).

The role stereotypes can play within society and within individuals, is significant and explains why people act the way they do at particular times. Berkowitz (2004:5) explains that misperception of the social environment occurs when there is either an overestimation or an underestimation of the behaviours and attitudes of others. Within this context, it is important to mention that HEIs are more influential when they offer students a social and intellectual atmosphere that is distinctively different from that with which they are familiar. Such an atmosphere creates greater discontinuity for students and subsequently improves the chances for enhanced cognitive and identity

development. For example, when students encounter novel ideas and new social situations, they are pressed to abandon automated scripts and think in more active ways (Milem, Chang & Antonio, 2005:8). A 2004 study tested psychological explanations of the impact of diversity by drawing upon theories of minority influence (Milem *et al.*, 2005:8). Minority influence theories contend that when minority opinions are present in groups, cognitive complexity is stimulated among majority opinion members. It was indicated that diversity does have a positive effect on cognitive complexity, particularly when group discussions include an issue with generally different racial viewpoints (Milem *et al.*, 2005:8). The importance of interventions to enhance contact between diverse student populations is highlighted in this discussion. It is not only preparing students for the world outside campus, but it plays a role in stimulating cognitive complexity.

In an attempt to enhance interracial contact, the concept of social integration can be investigated. Tinto (1993) defines social integration as the amount of personal contacts and interactions students have with their peers and with academics, whether the students are motivated or enjoy being at university. This can also be looked at from the point of view of student attendance and the extent to which students participate actively in class - all matters related to student engagement - which in turn is defined by Barkley (2009) as the intersection of motivation and active participation. Martin (2006) agrees that factors showing student engagement depict students' willingness to participate in routine academic activities, such as attending class, submitting required work, and following lecturers' directions in class.

The Contact Hypothesis and the resulting Contact Theory, of Gordon Allport (1954) is still viewed by many social psychologists as one of the most effective strategies for improving intergroup relations (Reicher, 2007). The theory is based upon the following premises. Prejudice is taken as the root cause of undesirable intergroup relations. In cases where intergroup relations do not embody the ideals of social inclusion, cohesion and respect for social differences as espoused by democratic regimes, intergroup contact can improve intergroup relations by reducing, if not altogether eliminating intergroup prejudice (Allport, 1954). The rationale for the Listening, Living and Learning programme is based upon the Contact Hypothesis.

The aim is to broaden the experience of students on campus regarding diversity and to bring them in contact with those who are different in terms of so many factors – race, ethnicity, culture, socio-economic status, faculty, language, country of origin. These experiences may lead to a reduction in prejudice, stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes.

In light of the above reflection on diversity, a discussion of the possible role of LLL as an intervention strategy will follow.

3.4.2 The Listening, Living and Learning Programme

The LLL programme was piloted in 2008 when it started with one student house. Currently there are 14 of these houses, and 24 will be added in 2014 (Kloppers, 2011). There are 99 students in the LLL programme for 2013 and a full-time co-ordinator has been appointed to assist with the management of the LLL houses, students and mentors. The long-term development goal of LLL is to create the ultimate student housing experience, therefore not only having an influence on the way students think but also influencing their friends, family and the wider campus community (Kloppers, 2011).

A LLL house is ideally eight students living together in a student house. The students have a specific theme for the year and engage in conversation on the theme for the year that they live together. The students in the LLL house are ideally a small diverse group of students from different faculties, gender, race, background and nationality. Each house adopts a theme for the year – the themes for 2013 can be viewed in Figure 3.2.



**LISTEN
LIVE & LEARN**

2013

Theme	House
Community	Joubert str 12
Creating Economic Wealth	Huis De Villiers C1
Critical Thinking	Huis De Villiers C2
Education	Victoria str 61
Gender Equality	Victoria str 59
Globalisation	Joubert str 13
Leadership	Murray str 10
Media	Murray str 14
MDG	Joubert str 5
Open I	Waldenhuis
PhD	Merriman 42 Annex
Sport	Joubert str 17
Sustainable Development	Murray str 6
Technology	Merriman 42

Figure 3.2 LLL themes for 2013

The house hosts a conversation around the theme inviting academics, civic leaders, experts and other people to join the conversation in the house. Each LLL house also engages in a small community project (Cornelissen, Dunn & Klopers, 2011). A question can be posed in terms of application procedures as only 99 students can currently be accommodated.

An application process that embraces diversity is essential. For this reason a simple written application in English with one or more motivation essays followed by a standard question-and-answer-style interview is most likely to favour extroverted first language English speakers who have experience of writing and debating. Given this premise, an application and selection system was developed which is holistic, standardised, transparent, unbiased and scalable, to accommodate significant increases in the size of initiative. The application and selection process was divided into 5 stages: application, short listing, interviewing, calculation and placement, and acceptance. It was piloted in 2012 and the application and selection process managed to maintain the distribution of race and gender, as constructs of diversity, from the

pool of original applicants (N = 179) to the number of placed applicants (N = 91) (Smorenburg & Dunn, 2013).

In positioning the University to play a significant role in closing the divide between Africa's challenges and finding resolve therefore, SU has committed to reposition the institution for continued excellence through the core shared value of *HOPE*. Using current success as a point of departure, Stellenbosch is transforming into an institution not only significantly different from its past, but also significantly better. To accomplish this goal, the aim is to produce dynamic young individuals who will take the continent to new world rankings in the global knowledge economy. Change agents are needed to 'keep the hope alive' if this effort is to succeed (Kloppers, 2011).

Thinking in terms of innovation is however not enough if LLL's aim is to have significant impact within the Stellenbosch student population. Eventually this effort must move from being an innovation or an interesting programme to being a reform. Being a reform requires structural change, reworking roles and relationships, and generally re-engineering the set up so that the learning community is appropriately supported. All LLL houses are structured to achieve this goal (Cornelissen, Dunn & Kloppers, 2011).

Students in the house model the new society that South Africa needs to grow into and prove that living together is possible, is healthy and inspirational and allows people to become friends across diverse boundaries. The students share intimate spaces such as kitchen and bathroom facilities and the conversations negotiating house rhythm in the use thereof is invaluable in growing closer and finding common ground. Lounge conversations, which form the focal point of the initiative, are necessary to challenge thinking and promote critical thinking and open-mindedness. They also act as an inspirational space where academics and students can come together and inspire each other. The project is meant to teach people to not only live together, but also work and plan together (Smorenburg, Dunn & Kloppers, 2013). A senior staff member of the University is appointed to act as a mentor for a themed house for the year, acting as a

catalyst for the creation of dialogue and guiding the students in terms of conversations. Participating students discover vastly different perspectives and have the unique opportunity to form friendships, to engage with experts on the theme of their house and to connect with the mentor of their LLL house (Cornelissen, Dunn & Kloppers, 2011).

The house thus serves as a kind of a think-tank to tackle the challenges of society, and students become familiar with a multi-disciplinary approach to challenges. Conversations that take place in the houses and the vibrancy of the students spill over into campus and ignite a more intellectually stimulating and challenging campus environment. This serves as a systemic intervention to change the way students approach residence life as residence is no longer the ultimate living experience on campus, but a way of promoting oneself to get into a LLL house. It becomes the ultimate experience of diversity as it allows the campus to use groups that are in a minority to make a significant contribution to those staying in the house with them (Smorenburg, Dunn & Kloppers, 2013).

As indicated earlier, the LLL programme is located within CSC in terms of management, strategic planning and governance. As the current LLL houses are alone standing older houses spread all over campus, they tend to present a fair amount of maintenance challenges. As these houses were not specifically designed to accommodate 4 – 8 people, primarily in single rooms, queries regarding the infrastructure, expansion thereof or upgrading of facilities are quite common. These services are rendered by two other departments at SU which do not fully share the vision of LLL in terms of appropriate infrastructure. The dichotomy in terms of managing people versus managing assets is amplified. It leads to ample frustration when the language spoken by CSC in terms of *whole student development* is not comprehended by a services department. Currently it leads to micro-managing efforts from the LLL staff members regarding maintenance issues which are counterproductive. Attempts to integrate these services and to educate all role players on the vision and objectives of LLL, are on-going.

At LLL, the vision is that all students – regardless of background – have the potential to succeed and they deserve the chance to do so. The long term benefit of the LLL programme thus reaches far beyond the confines of those who will gain directly from the activities, since ideas encourage student teams to develop and implement service projects that positively impact on societies and bring about substantive change (Smorenburg, Dunn & Kloppers, 2013).

The LLL houses are designed to provide students with a unique on-campus living environment together with an educational programme. Themed houses create unique opportunities for education within the living spaces. Students are able and encouraged to communicate and engage with peers, donors, academics, politicians, other institutions, visitors to the university, the management of the university and the community at large – to promote a listening, living and learning that becomes an innovative ‘think tank’ (Cornelissen, Dunn & Kloppers, 2011). Some of the perceived benefits of the LLL programme include:

- On-going leadership opportunities and periodic training
- Experience in planning, project management, working with different people, and interaction with peers and academics
- Group living experience organised around a theme that brings classroom and out-of-classroom experiences closer in creating an environment that promotes academic excellence
- Greater interaction between students, academics and university management
- Increased self-confidence, creative thinking, knowledge and skills to establish and support healthy communities (Smorenburg, Dunn & Kloppers, 2013).

The LLL intervention aims to empower students to facilitate change, not only for themselves, but on behalf of others, and it provides a different sense of leadership empowerment. It is expected that students will develop a sense of working toward or serving a greater good beyond themselves. Leadership is contextualized as a value-based, socially responsible process and as Roberts (2007) indicates “leadership can be defined as conviction in action”. The traditional notion of leadership being a position

that is exclusive and not accessible to all people is discarded. The focus in LLL is rather on raising awareness in terms of the students themselves, of others and of society as a whole. The LLL programme aims to develop students as agents of change to continue establishing and supporting healthy communities when they leave SU after graduation. Positive social change needs to be continued and is not bound to SU campus, time or space.

However, as the LLL programme is developing into a structured, experiential learning experience, the matter of assessment comes to the fore. As this is a learning community, assessment in terms of students' development, process of adjustment and growth during the year needs to be conducted. The assessment currently consists of house visits and conversations with the houses by the LLL co-ordinator (on a quarterly basis), blogging on the website of LLL after each guest speaker's visit to the house, providing a half-year reflection and end-of-year reflection of the experience in LLL. It remains a challenge to obtain feedback from students in terms of blogging; it seems to be a culture that needs to be instilled. Another challenge that students seem to struggle with, is to invite guest speakers to their houses. Several prominent figures from all over South Africa visit the SU campus on a regular basis, and the LLL students do not utilize the opportunity to engage. An additional aspect requested for assessment purposes is reflective writing. Although training has been provided in reflective writing, students struggle with mastering it. It seems to remain on a purely factual level and the true essence of reflection is not evident in their feedback yet. To truly reflect on the LLL experience will be a developmental exercise for students.

Figure 3.3 provides examples of a variety of interactive experiences LLL respondents have had during 2012. Within the SU context, interaction across cultural and social boundaries unfortunately does not occur frequently.



Figure 3.3: Interactive experiences of LLL students

The researcher wants to highlight that the LLL programme as a learning community differs in some aspects from the typical American model. The LLL programme is mostly for senior students (including postgraduate students) while the American learning communities are focused upon first years. LLL is mainly for individual student houses while the learning communities are embedded within residences. LLL consists of three concepts – to listen, to live and to learn – and is not solely focused on learning.

A LLL participant of 2012 shared her experience:

“LLL was the greatest learning experience I have had to date. Many universities offer you an education, and the opportunity to interact with an array of characters, but few offer the experience of living among your peers in an environment that assists in development of critical thinking, personal skills and some unusual life lessons. And that is exactly what I gained from LLL - and then some.

I discovered that I am not nearly as accepting as I believed I was, but on the positive side I can take a challenge and turn it into a personal success. I am a far better chef

than I gave myself credit for, but I sometimes let my temper get the best of me. I thought I was a natural born leader, but I still hadn't even grazed the surface of what constitutes a great leader. No one knows what their true character is until they've been in testing situations, and I believe LLL threw a huge amount of those situations at me – situations that made me uncomfortable; situations that made me surprisingly passionate; and situations that bugged me for days on end without really knowing why. But the memories I take from LLL, positive and negative, enlightening and damaging, are all great in them and contributed to the growth I can see in myself.”

Currently the LLL programme is being viewed as one of the flagships of student life at SU (Kloppers, 2011). The programme is vastly growing, and although it is currently unique to SU, other universities will be following suit. However, without proper validation of the outcomes of the programme, this cannot be advocated as a programme enhancing positive social change and developing socially responsible leaders, nor can it be marketed as the ideal programme for senior students. Shushok and Sriram (2010:72) state that creating learning communities requires commitment, and the commitment to this programme necessitates formative evaluation.

As mentioned above, the programme assists with exposing students to ‘the other’ and provides them with an experiential living experience in an attempt to prepare them for a diverse South Africa. Within the context of programme evaluation and due to the limited scope of the study, the research aim of this study was reduced to investigate whether there is change in the attitudes of LLL students regarding stereotyping and discrimination against ‘the other’. Concluding remarks will follow.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter elaborated upon the setting and context of the research study. A historical background was provided of higher education in South Africa where after the focus shifted to Stellenbosch University. The perceptions regarding the University were highlighted and the role of transformation emphasized. As the Listening, Living and Learning programme is embedded in student affairs, the nature and role of the Centre for Student Communities was briefly discussed. A reflection on diversity and relevant constructs followed and the importance of exposure to ‘the other’ were emphasized.

The Contact Hypothesis of Allport, the paradigm on which LLL was founded, remains the leading theory in terms of eliminating intergroup prejudice. As a type of learning community, the co-curricular developmental role of the LLL programme was investigated. The LLL programme aims to develop students as agents of change to continue establishing and supporting healthy communities when they leave SU after graduation. Positive social change needs to be continued and is not bound to SU campus, time or space. Chapter Four will be providing the research methodology employed during the course of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Two a literature review was done to explore the constructs related to co-curricular development, student housing models, learning communities and the Social Change Model of Leadership. In order to contextualize these constructs within the research setting, Chapter Three elaborated upon higher education in South Africa, Stellenbosch University and the Listening, Living and Learning programme. The current chapter aims to discuss the research methodology employed to achieve the goal and objectives of this study as detailed in Chapter One.

Research involves a systematic process of collecting and logically analysing and interpreting information (data) to answer questions. Research is not limited to one approach (Kumar, 2005:7-8). There are various methods and approaches to investigate a problem or a research question. This chapter focuses on the research methodology utilized in the study by first outlining the goal and objectives of the study. A description of the research method and design is then provided, where after validity and reliability of the measuring instrument are discussed. A discussion of the data analysis and ethical considerations, as applicable to the study, conclude the chapter.

4.2 RESEARCH GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

The goal of a study can be defined as “the end toward which effort or ambition is directed” (Fouché & De Vos, 2005:104; Maree, 2007:25). Mouton (2001:50) explains that the goal is what the researcher aims to do, the purpose of the study.

Objectives are viewed as the tangible steps taken in order to reach the goal (Fouché & De Vos, 2005:104). The objectives are *what* will be studied in the research (Mouton, 2001:48).

As indicated in Chapter One, the research goal for this study is:

To evaluate one of the outcomes of the Listening, Living and Learning programme, after a brief intervention, by investigating change (if any) in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes.

The objectives of this study are:

- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status;*
- *To investigate change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality (country of origin).*

The hypotheses that guided the study will be comprehensively discussed in Chapter Five. The research approach, method, design and sampling followed to respond to the above goal and objectives will be expanded upon in the next section.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH, DESIGN AND SAMPLING

4.3.1 Research Approach

According to Fouché and Delport (2005:73) a research approach refers to the methodological paradigm from which a study is conducted. For the purpose of this study an applied, quantitative research approach was used.

A distinction can be made between a basic and applied study. A basic study seeks answers to questions that will have an impact on the way society thinks about a topic, and is founded in knowledge and understanding (Fouché & De Vos, 2005: 105-106). This was not the researcher's aim. This study was an applied study since it aimed at broadening knowledge and understanding (Fouché & De Vos, 2005: 105-106).

Applied research, as defined by Bernard and Whitley (2002: 30), refers to research where the solution to a problem that is affecting some facet of society and its results are explored and the best solution is incorporated in order to improve society. Within the context of the current study, it was the aim of the researcher to explore the new phenomenon of the Listening, Living and Learning programme and the possible influence it might have on attitudes of stereotyping and discrimination.

The research follows a quantitative approach, based on the collection of numerical data (Mertens, 2010:3), in order to determine whether exposure to the LLL programme has effected change in terms of stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes. Gravetter and Forzano (2009:147) define quantitative research as the process of “measuring variables for individual respondents to obtain scores, usually numerical values that are submitted to statistical analysis for summary and interpretation”. It is important to consider the differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to make an informed decision about the most appropriate approach for the research study. Kreuger and Neuman (2006:16) compared the two approaches in terms of their characteristics as follows:

Table 4.1 A comparison of quantitative and qualitative approaches

Quantitative Approach	Qualitative Approach
The measurement of objective facts;	The construction of social reality and cultural meaning occur;
A focus on variables is evident;	A focus on interactive processes and events is evident;
Reliability as the key criterion of scientific excellence;	Authenticity is viewed as the key criterion of scientific excellence;
A value-free stance is adopted;	Present and explicit values are adopted;
Research is conducted independently of the context;	Research is situationally constrained;
Many cases or subjects are involved;	A few cases or subjects are involved;
Statistical analysis is the method of choice;	Thematic analysis is the method of choice;

The researcher maintains a detached attitude.	The researcher is involved in the process.
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(Kreuger & Neuman, 2006:16)

As indicated in Table 4.1, qualitative research methods are especially suited for studies which examine unfolding events, where exploration, explanation, description and illustration are needed as well as focus on a broad analysis of an entire phenomenon or context (Creswell, 2008:69; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:188). The quantitative approach is more effective in getting a specific and precise understanding of one aspect of an already well-defined social problem, while the qualitative approach aims to answer research questions that require a comprehensive understanding of a social problem from an intensive study of a few people (Grinnell & Unrau, 2005:82). A quantitative approach tends to reduce the likelihood of subjective interpretation of findings as this is one of the features of quantitative methodologies (Stangor, 2011:15). A quantitative approach for the study was applicable as many respondents are involved; research had to be conducted independently from the context and the aim was to understand a specific part of a defined social problem. As the study was the first of its kind within the LLL context, a systematic and objective approach was preferable to enable the researcher to set the scene for future research of a more in-depth and qualitative nature.

4.3.2 Research Design

The study was conducted within the broad research design (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:70; Mouton, 2001:55) of programme evaluation. Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2004:431) define programme evaluation as a systematic investigation of the effectiveness of a social intervention programme in ways that are adapted to the political and organizational environments to inform social actions that may improve social conditions. Programme evaluation forms part of the evaluation approach which can be defined as the overall way of conceptualizing evaluation, including philosophical and value orientations to the task. Evaluation purposes refer to the intended use of the evaluation activity, namely gathering information for improving the design, development, formation and implementation of a programme (formative evaluation), describing the process of a programme as it is being developed (process evaluation),

or assessing the impact, outcome or worth of a programme (summative evaluation) (Fouchè, 2011:452).

As the purpose of the programme evaluation is to gather information for improving the LLL programme, formative evaluation was utilized. Formative evaluations are regarded as activities directed at improving a programme's design, planning, development and implementation (Monette, Sullivan & DeJong, 2008). The term is self-explanatory: this kind of evaluation 'forms' the programme, that is, it helps to improve it at those points where the programme does not seem to meet the criteria originally set by the initiator(s) (Fouchè, 2011:453).

The programme evaluation was conducted within the postpositivist paradigm, as explained in Chapter One. In order to fully comprehend the postpositivist paradigm, the positivist paradigm will be briefly discussed. According to Neuman (2000:66) positivism sees social science as an organized method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behavior in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity. Researchers using a positivist approach prefer accurate quantitative data and often choose to conduct experiments and surveys. Jansen (2007:21) stipulates that in positivism only objective, observable facts can be the basis of science. Theological (the supernatural) or metaphysical (the abstract) claims must yield to the positive – that which can be explained in terms of scientific laws. Potter (2006:411) explains that positivist evaluation research is based on the belief that the scope of programme evaluation is limited to those aspects of social programmes that can be objectively observed and tested.

Postpositivists, however, work from the assumption that any piece of research is influenced by a number of well-developed theories apart from, as well as, the one which is being tested (Cook & Campbell in Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Within this paradigm, theories are held to be provisional and new understandings may challenge the whole theoretical framework. Denzin and Lincoln (1994:5) state that positivism contends that there *is* a reality out there to be studied, captured and understood,

whereas postpositivists argue that reality can never be fully apprehended, only approximated. Postpositivism relies on multiple methods as a way of capturing as much of reality as possible. Emphasis is also placed on the discovery and verification of theories. Morris (2006:77) stipulate that the postpositivist researcher focuses on the understanding of the study as it evolves during the investigation and thus begins with an area of study and what is relevant to that area for fuller understanding thereof. A precise question and hypothesis are thus not developed before starting the study.

As postpositivism is a much freer paradigm, it allows for the development of alternative research strategies that might be able to find information in the most unlikely and creative ways (Glicken, 2003:28). It also provides the researcher with the freedom to use more subjective measures of gathering information. The sample size might be small, while measuring instruments might be created by the researcher him- or herself (De Vos, Strydom, Schulze & Patel, 2011:7). Postpositivist research is most commonly aligned with quantitative methods of data collection and analysis (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

As evaluation research has no separate set of research techniques that is distinctly applied for this single purpose, the researcher chose the quantitative approach as it was relevant and appropriate in terms of the goal of the study, as motivated in the previous section. Within the quantitative approach a one-group pre-test-posttest design was used to measure the dependent variables by conducting an electronic, self-administered questionnaire. This design can be classified as quasi-experimental and includes a pre-test measure followed by an intervention and a post-test for a single group (Salkind, 2010:1086).

Three main categories of experimental design can be distinguished: pre-experimental, quasi-experimental and true experimental. At the midpoint of the experimental continuum are quasi-experimental designs, which have some but not all of the requirements of an 'ideal' experiment. The requirement that quasi-experimental designs lack most frequently is the random assignment of research respondents to two or more groups. Although quasi-experimental research enables the drawing of

conclusions about causal relationships with less conviction than true experimental research, it nonetheless allows it with much more confidence than pre-experimental research (Fouchè, Delport & De Vos, 2011:149). Salkind (2010) indicates that because of the pre- and posttest, temporal precedence is more easily established, although the effect could still have been caused by history or maturation.

In the one-group pre-test post-test design there is, within one group, measurement of a dependent variable (O^1), when no independent variable (X) is present, subsequently an independent variable (X) is introduced, followed by a repeated measure of the dependent variable (O^2) at a later stage. Measures of the dependent variables O^1 and O^2 are compared for two different states of the independent variable within the same group (E) before and after. This design can be visually indicated as follows (Fouchè, Delport & De Vos, 2011:145; Salkind, 2010):

E: O^1 X O^2

The independent variable for this study is the Listening, Living and Learning programme and the dependent variables are stereotype and discriminatory attitudes.

For the purpose of this study, it is important to note that programme evaluation is a much more comprehensive process than merely conducting a survey about one outcome within a programme. The study was preceded by work done by Fourie-Malherbe (2012) that developed a Logic Model for the LLL programme, clarified the programme goals and objectives and specified the output, outcome and impact indicators, as well as the sources of evidence for each of these indicators. One of the programme outcomes identified in this process was: *Increased levels of interaction among students in a LLL house leading to reduced stereotyping and diminished bias*. The source of evidence for this programme outcome would be a survey on bias and stereotyping. Due to the limited scope of this dissertation, the parameters of the study have been set to evaluate only one outcome of the LLL programme. Follow-up studies to measure other outcomes and programme impact will be conducted.

4.3.3 Universe, population and sample

According to Dyer (2006:55), a *population* refers to a set of individuals who share a certain set of features, whilst a *universe* would refer to all possible potential subjects

with those attributes. In this study, the universe and the population were the same as the study included all students placed in the LLL programme for the 2013 academic year at Stellenbosch University. The students shared a similar set of features (participation in the LLL programme) and all the students were targeted to participate (the universe). As the programme can currently only accommodate approximately 100 students, the universe and population for this study was identical. Within this context, only a convenience sample was possible because the research needs to be conducted with a naturally formed group (Creswell, 2009:155) – in this case the group of LLL students for the year of 2013.

A convenience sample depends on the availability and willingness of respondents to partake in the research (Durrheim & Painter, 2006:139). However, a benefit of having a similar universe and population, is that all cases (respondents) included are typical of the population. As each stage of sampling introduces errors, the risk for sampling error is hereby diminished (Durrheim & Painter, 2006:140). The mechanisms of data collection for the study will be discussed accordingly.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION

The process of data collection will be elaborated upon firstly where after the data gathering mechanism, a self-administered questionnaire, will be discussed.

4.4.1 The process of data collection

Data collection (Delpont, 2005:166) was done through electronic self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaire was developed by Fourie-Malherbe (2012) and is attached as Addendum A. The questionnaire was distributed to students currently enrolled in the LLL programme. The sample was therefore the 99 senior students placed in the Listening, Living and Learning (LLL) senior student housing programme at Stellenbosch University for the duration of 2013. The questionnaire was administered twice – as a pre-test at the beginning of the year (just after enrolment) and as a post-test again after 5 months' time. In order to maintain researcher objectivity as far as possible, all correspondence and data gathering were conducted not by the researcher but by the LLL co-ordinator.

4.4.2 The questionnaire as data gathering mechanism

Quantitative data collection methods often employ measuring instruments. In the social and human sciences, ‘measuring instrument’ refers to such instruments as structured observation schedules, structured interviewing schedules, questionnaires, checklists, indexes and scales (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:171).

A self-administered, electronic questionnaire is the method of measurement for this study. Babbie (2007:246) defines a questionnaire as “a document containing questions and/or other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis”. Different types of questionnaires can be identified. A self-administered questionnaire can be defined as questionnaires being handed to respondents, who complete them on their own, but the researcher is available in case problems are experienced (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:186). Possible advantages utilizing self-administered questionnaires are that they can be distributed to a large number of people, and that this method involves lower costs than interviewing. Also, with self-administered questionnaires a reduced interviewer bias is present and ‘socially desirable’ answers may be less dominant. Possible disadvantages can include low response rates, clarity issues, difficulties with language and understanding and, if online, access challenges (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011).

The questionnaire was distributed electronically and can be classified as a web-based survey as it required the respondent to complete the questionnaire online through a website (Grinnel & Unrau, 2008:298). According to Babbie and Mouton (2007: 230), survey research “is perhaps the most frequently used research design in the social sciences”. Surveys are primarily used in studies where individuals are the unit of analysis and they are “excellent vehicles for measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population” (Babbie & Mouton 2007: 232). Surveys collect information from a large sample cost-effectively, it yields specific and comparative data and it allows respondents to remain anonymous. Some of the challenges include that questions can be misinterpreted by respondents, the researcher cannot always control the circumstances in which respondents complete the survey and responses may be superficial – the nature of the survey makes in-depth questioning difficult.

An advantage of electronic questionnaires is that the data are directly entered into a database, mistakes are limited and the use of paper is eliminated (Grinnell & Unrau, 2008:298). An electronic medium is particularly useful in the case of young respondents, who are used to electronic means of communication and are virtually always connected. It is also useful when sensitive questions are being asked as the electronic format provides a more impersonal platform for respondents to air their views frankly (Hunt & McHale, 2007: 1416).

The questionnaire was developed by Fourie-Malherbe (2012) as part of the development of a programme logic model for the LLL programme. Fourie-Malherbe (2012) reports that an internet search produced a large number of examples of survey instruments, specifically developed for measuring stereotyping and bias in respondents' attitudes. These range from attitudes about gender, race, immigrants, age, and even obesity. The Implicit Association Test of Harvard University (<https://implicit.harvard.edu/>) can be viewed as an example, as well as a number of surveys developed by Prof Walter Stephan of New Mexico State University (www-psych.nmsu.edu/faculty/wstephan.htm). The survey is therefore clearly an appropriate instrument to measure the kinds of attitudes that this programme concerns itself with. However, no instrument could be found that measures attitudes towards different dimensions of 'otherness'; therefore the instrument was developed *de novo* (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012). The process of development will be shortly explained.

The data that had to be collected by the questionnaire was data on changes in attitudes towards 'the other' that will illustrate extent of bias and levels of stereotyping (i.e. whether they have stayed the same or diminished due to the LLL programme). From an extensive literature study, the categories of bias and stereotyping that occur among students were identified. These include gender, race, language, country of origin and socio-economic status. Following on this, forms of behavior demonstrating bias and stereotyping were listed. The following forms of behavior demonstrate bias: distrust, making jokes about, using derogatory language, fearing, regarding as inferior, not associating with, and swearing at (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012). The categories of bias and the forms of behavior demonstrating bias were then arranged in a matrix where every category of bias was coupled with a form of behaviour. This was formulated in the

form of a statement (linear numerical scale) which the respondent agrees or disagrees with on ten-point scale (from totally disagree=1 to totally agree=10). Some statements were formulated in the positive and others in the negative. This had to be taken into account when the coding was done during the analysis phase (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012).

For purposes of internal triangulation a ten-point semantic differential scale was added with items on each of the five categories of bias and stereotyping. Relevant demographic questions completed the survey. It was decided to place the demographic items at the beginning of the survey to make respondents more comfortable, as the survey items are of a sensitive nature and could make respondents feel uncomfortable or anxious. The instrument was then finalised by writing introductory paragraphs explaining the purpose of the research, grouping items and placing them in a logical order (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012).

The concepts of validity and reliability of the developed questionnaire will be discussed in section 4.6. Data analysis and interpretation will be focused upon in the next section.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Quantitative data analyses, according to Rubin and Babbie (2005:552), can be regarded as the techniques by which researchers convert data to a numerical form and subject it to statistical analysis. The purpose of analysis is thus to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied and tested, and conclusions drawn.

The analysis was performed by Professor M. Kidd of the Centre for Statistical Consultation at the Stellenbosch University, South Africa. Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarize and describe the biographical details of the sample. Data analysis furthermore typically included converting of all the pre-test and post-test scores to a percentage, and the computation of means and standard deviations (Fouché & Bartley, 2011). The data were analysed using STATISTICA (V10), a data analysis software package (StatSoft Inc., 2011). Data analysis in the quantitative approach

does not in itself provide the answers to research questions or hypotheses. David Royse (2008:318) likens the process of quantitative analysis to the process of translation, in that the researcher presents from the raw data a meaningful picture of patterns and relationships. The comprehensive data analysis and interpretation will follow in Chapter Five.

4.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

The aim of validity and reliability, amongst others, is to ensure that the operational measures accurately represent the real attributes of social and psychological ‘objects’ (Durrheim & Painter, 2006:158). Obtaining valid and reliable data, specifically in the context of measurement, is important. It is therefore necessary to contemplate these two concepts.

4.6.1 Validity

There are many types of validity. The focus of this section is on measurement validity, which is the degree to which a measure does what it is intended to do (Durrheim & Painter, 2006:147). Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie, 2007:146). Leedy and Ormrod (2005:28) state that “the validity of a measurement instrument is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure”. Validity can be classified into the following types – content, face, criterion and construct validity. Content and face validity may be established prior to data collection, while criterion and construct validity are established once the instrument has been used to collect data (Delport & Roestenburg, 2011: 173). The types will be briefly elaborated upon.

a) Content Validity

This is concerned with the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content (topics or items) of an instrument (Delport & Roestenburg, 2011: 173). Punch (2005: 97) mentions that content validity focuses on whether the full content of a conceptual definition is represented in the measure. Two questions can be asked to determine content validity (Delport & Roestenburg, 2011:173): Is the instrument really measuring the concept we assume it is? Does the instrument provide an adequate sample of items that represent the concept being measured?

b) Face Validity

Face validity seems to be the simplest and least scientific definition of validity. It concerns the superficial appearance or face value of a measurement procedure. The relevant question in this regard is: Does the measurement technique *look as if* it measures the variable that it claims to measure? (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:173). This seems to be a more subjective assessment of validity.

c) Criterion Validity

Criterion validity involves multiple measurements and is established by comparing scores on an instrument with an external criterion known to measure the concept, trait or behaviour being studied. It is essential in this approach to validation that there be one or more external or independent criteria against which to compare the scores on an instrument (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:173).

d) Construct Validity

Construct validity seems to be the most difficult because it involves determining the degree to which an instrument successfully measures a theoretical construct. It is concerned with the meaning of the instrument; that is, what it is measuring and how and why it operates the way it does. It involves not only validation of the instrument itself, but also the theory underlying it. To establish construct validity, the meaning of the construct must be understood and the propositions the theory makes about the relationships between this and other constructs must be identified. Construct validity is thus based on the logical relationship between variables (Babbie, 2007:14). It is, however, a lengthy, involved procedure which uses data from a variety of sources. A popular method for establishing construct validity is called factorial validity – factor analysis as a procedure is utilised here to determine from the data the number of underlying factors in a questionnaire (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:175).

Once the validity of an instrument has been established, the researcher may proceed to determine its reliability.

4.6.2 Reliability

Reliability can be defined as the degree to which the results are repeatable. This applies both to subjects' scores on measures (measurement reliability) and to the outcomes of the study as a whole. Individuals will score similarly on reliable measures on numerous occasions. Similarly, the same set of results will be obtained repeatedly in replications of the study if the study is reliable. Since positivists believe that they are studying a stable and unchanging reality, reliability is a highly valued criterion that indicates the accuracy and conclusiveness of the findings (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2006:92-93). The reliability of a measurement procedure is thus the stability or consistency of the measurement (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:177).

Another important aspect to keep in mind is research ethics, as the welfare of the research respondents needs to be protected. The next section will be devoted to a discussion of ethical considerations.

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The fact that human beings are the objects of study in the social sciences brings unique ethical problems to the fore which would never be relevant in the pure, clinical laboratory settings of the natural sciences. For researchers in the social sciences, the ethical issues are pervasive and complex, since data should never be obtained at the expense of human beings (Strydom, 2005:56). Researchers have two basic categories of ethical responsibility: responsibility to those, both human and nonhuman, who participate in a project; and responsibility to the discipline of science, to be accurate and honest in the reporting of their research (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). Researchers need to protect their research respondents, develop a trust with them, promote the integrity of research, guard against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on their organizations or institutions, and cope with new, challenging problems (Israel & Hay, 2006). Ethical questions are apparent today in such issues as personal disclosure, authenticity and credibility of the research report, the role of researchers in cross-cultural contexts, and issues of personal privacy through forms of internet data collection (Creswell, 2009:87).

An ethical review is increasingly becoming mandatory for social science research globally. In South Africa, most leading universities require that all social science

research involving human respondents be reviewed by an independent Research Ethics Committee (REC) before data collection can commence (Israel & Hay, 2006). The current study was reviewed at the Departmental Ethics Screening Committee (DESC) as well as the Research Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch University and ethical clearance was provided (Refer to Addendum C).

As the above mentioned section highlighted the importance of ethics, a definition of ethics needs to be provided. Strydom (2005:57) defines the concept of ethics as follows:

“Ethics is a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students”.

With this definition in mind, Berg (2009) explains that during the past several decades, methods of data collection, organization and analysis have become more sophisticated and penetrating. As a consequence, the extent or scope of research has become greatly expanded. With this expansion has come increased awareness and concern over the ethics of research and researchers (Berg, 2009:60). Ethical guidelines also serve as standards, and a basis upon which each researcher ought to evaluate his/her own conduct. As such, this is an aspect which should be borne in mind continuously. Ethical principles should thus be internalised in the personality of the researcher to such an extent that ethically guided decision making becomes part of his/her total lifestyle (Strydom, 2005:57).

The concept of ethics having been conceptualized, the next section will be devoted to discussing a few ethical challenges within the research process.

4.7.1 Ethical Issues in the Research Process

The following ethical issues will be addressed as encountered within the research process. A reflection on this current study is provided in cursive writing as applicable.

a) Ethical Issues in the Research Problem, Purpose and Questions

When writing the introduction to the study, the researcher identifies a significant problem or issue to study, and presents a rationale for its importance. During the identification of the research problem, it is important to identify a problem that will benefit individuals being studied, one that will be meaningful for others besides the researcher (Punch in Creswell, 2009). *For the purpose of the current study, the researcher ensured that the research problem formulated benefits for a variety of role players and stakeholders. As the outcomes of the LLL programme have not been evaluated, an evaluation of the outcomes could benefit students participating in the programme; staff members involved in the managing of the programme as well as provide direction in terms of the strategic growth of LLL.*

In developing the purpose statement or the central intent and questions for a study, proposal developers need to convey the purpose of the study that will be described to the respondents. Deception occurs when respondents understand one purpose but the researcher has a different purpose in mind (Sarantakos in Creswell, 2009). *All information regarding the proposed goal and objectives of the study was communicated clearly to all respondents. This was done verbally by the researcher when she presented the process of research to the LLL students at their training day in February 2013. This was also communicated as part of the consent letters to respondents.*

b) Ethical Issues in Data Collection

As researchers anticipate data collection, they need to respect the respondents and the sites for research. A variety of issues can arise during this stage of research (Creswell, 2009):

- Respondents should not be put at risk and vulnerable populations should be respected, Confidentiality and anonymity of respondents should be guaranteed;
- Informed consent from respondents should be collected. Hakim (2000:143) indicates that informed consent becomes a necessary condition rather than a luxury or an impediment;

- The agreement of individuals in authority should be gained to provide access to study respondents at research sites. Researchers need to respect research sites so that they are left undisturbed after a research study;
- An ethical issue arises when there is no reciprocity between the researcher and the respondents. Both the researcher and the respondents should benefit from the research;
- Researchers also need to anticipate the possibility of harmful, intimate information being disclosed during the data collection process (Creswell, 2009: 90-91).

In the study, the rights of all respondents were respected and an informed consent letter had to be signed before any participation (Refer to Addendum B). The letter stipulated the purpose of the study, the procedures (in terms of what will be expected of respondents), the potential benefits of the study to the participant and the student housing context, and confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed. It was indicated that permission for the research had been gained from Stellenbosch University and that the correct protocol was adhered to. The right to choose participation, and withdrawal from the study, was indicated. A referral strategy was put in place by the researcher should possible harmful or intimate information be disclosed during the data collection process.

c) Ethical Issues in Data Analysis and Interpretation

When the researcher analyses and interprets both quantitative and qualitative data, issues emerge that call for good ethical decisions. The following, according to Creswell (2009:91) needs to be kept in mind:

- The study needs to protect the anonymity of individuals, roles and incidents. Huysamen (1994) emphasizes that the more sensitive the information, or the more concealed the manner in which the information was gathered, the greater the responsibility of the researcher and all concerned to treat the information as extremely confidential;
- Data needs to be kept safe for a reasonable period of time (usually five to ten years);

- During the interpretation of the data, researchers need to provide an accurate account of the information.

The confidentiality and anonymity of all respondents are honored throughout the dissertation. There are no answers that can be associated with a specific individual, or even a specific house within the LLL programme. The data will be stored electronically for five years and only the researcher as well as the supervisor and statistician have access to the data. The researcher ensured that an accurate account of all information has been provided.

4.7.2 Ethical Issues in Writing and Disseminating the Research

During the last phase of the process, writing and dissemination, several ethical challenges may come to the fore:

- The language use within the report needs to be free from any bias;
- The suppressing, falsifying or inventing of findings to meet a researcher's needs is not acceptable. Babbie (1990) indicates that science generally progresses through honesty and is retarded by ego-based deception;
- During the writing of a scholarly manuscript, colleagues' contributions should not be exploited, but authorship should be provided to all involved;
- The details of the research should be released within the study design so that readers can determine for themselves the credibility of the study (Creswell, 2009). Babbie (1990:345) mentions that the researcher personally realises best what the shortcomings of his/her investigation are and should mention them clearly in the report, whether they are errors in the questionnaire, the sampling procedure or the analysis of data.

Throughout the dissertation the researcher adhered to using proper, academic writing in a neutral stance, free from bias as far as possible. All findings as indicated by the statistical analysis, as conducted by the Centre for Statistics, have been reported in a just and fair manner. All sources utilized in the dissertation have been acknowledged. It is important to reflect on the research process and to indicate what possible shortcomings or limitations could be identified; this will be done in Chapter Six.

One of the key variables within the ethical process is the researcher. The next section will entail a discussion on the actions and competence of the researcher, specifically from an ethical perspective.

4.7.3 The actions and competence of the researcher

Researchers are ethically obliged to ensure that they are competent and adequately skilled to undertake the proposed investigation. When sensitive investigations are involved, this requirement is even more important. Even well-intentioned and well-planned research can fail or can produce invalid results if the researchers and/or fieldworkers are not adequately qualified and equipped, and if there is not adequate supervision of the project (Strydom, 2005:63).

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) emphasize that the researcher or their team members should only carry out procedures that they are competent to conduct. Suitably qualified and licensed professionals should be asked to collaborate in studies requiring specific practical procedures, whether these are psychological, medical or relating to another professional field. The entire research project must run its course in an ethically correct manner. Objectivity and restraint in making value judgments are part of the equipment of a competent researcher. Professional practitioners who want to base their practice on scientific principles must refrain from value judgments. Researchers must make a thorough study and become sensitively aware beforehand of the values, norms and climate which exist in a community before the research project can commence at all. The professional researcher must respect the customs of the particular community in all his actions in order to obtain proper cooperation from the community (Strydom, 2005). Trust refers to the relationship between the researcher and the respondents, and also to the researcher's responsibility not to 'spoil' the field for others in the sense that potential research subjects become reluctant to participate in research (Ryen, 2004).

The researcher ensured that she is adequately prepared and skilled for the study. As she has completed a doctoral degree, she is well-versed in the research process. All decisions regarding the research process, and actions resulting from it, were discussed with the supervisor of the study. As the researcher is managing the LLL

programme while conducting research on respondents in the programme, it remained a constant challenge to remain objective about the literature and findings.

Although the researcher is not in daily contact with the students as the LLL co-ordinator manages those aspects of LLL, the researcher remains in a position of authority towards the respondents. In order to ensure that no biases influence the responses of the respondents, all communication and data gathering were conducted via the LLL co-ordinator. It was vital to the researcher that a trusting relationship between her and the respondents be maintained as the future of the programme at SU is important to her. However, as far as possible, the researcher remained objective during the research process and refrained from value judgments.

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to provide a comprehensive view on the research methodology applied within the study. The goal and objectives of the study were revisited where after the research approach, design and sampling were introduced. The study has an applied, quantitative nature and programme evaluation was utilized to evaluate one outcome of the Listening, Living and Learning programme. Formative evaluation was conducted in the form of electronic, self-administered questionnaires distributed to all the respondents of the LLL programme for 2013. Due to the unavailability of relevant questionnaires, a questionnaire was developed that specifically focuses on a participant's attitude regarding 'the other'. Data analysis was conducted and all ethical considerations were incorporated. Chapter Four has set the scene for the chapter to follow. The statistical techniques, methods of analysis, the results of the statistical treatment of the data, and the interpretation of the results are presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings of the empirical research. The goal of the study was to evaluate one of the outcomes of the Listening, Living and Learning programme by investigating change (if any) in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes. The constructs measured to achieve the abovementioned goal were gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality (country of origin). Based on the goal and objectives, the hypotheses in Chapter One were formulated. Statistical techniques were applied to the data obtained during the pre- and post-testing in order to statistically test the hypotheses.

The hypotheses guiding this study will introduce the discussion. The different statistical techniques used during the analysis of the data will be elaborated upon thereafter. To complement the definition of the sample, the descriptive characteristics of the sample are provided. The hypotheses are statistically tested and other significant correlations identified in the study are highlighted. Concluding remarks will follow.

5.2 HYPOTHESES

The following research hypotheses guided the study. The hypotheses are applicable to the two tests conducted in the research – therefore each hypothesis refers to the pre- and post-testing. To avoid repetition, this is not mentioned after each hypothesis:

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| Hypothesis 0: | There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender. |
| Hypothesis 11: | There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender. |

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

Hypothesis 1²: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

Hypothesis 1³: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 1⁴: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

Hypothesis 1⁵: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

5.3 ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

There are two primary statistical categories that are concerned with making meaning of raw data – namely descriptive and inferential statistics (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011:10). Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to investigate the research hypotheses. Each concept will be shortly defined where after the methods used for statistical analysis will be discussed.

5.3.1 Descriptive and Inferential Statistics

The term descriptive statistics is a collective name for a number of statistical methods that are used to organise and summarise data in a meaningful way. This serves to enhance the understanding of the properties of the data. Descriptive statistics can be represented in graphical ways and numerical ways (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:183). Descriptive statistics calculated for the study include frequencies, means and standard deviations. Frequencies are the number of times a response has occurred. A mean is the sum of a set of scores divided by the scores and a standard deviation is a measure of the average of the deviations of each score around the mean (Jansen, 2007).

However, most researchers want to go beyond the point of summarizing and describing the gathered data. The purpose of most quantitative research is to use the findings from the sample data to generalise or draw conclusions about the population. This is called statistical inference, a field of statistics that relies heavily on probability theory. It is by means of probability statements that inferences are made and probability is the way of quantifying chance (Pietersen & Maree, 2007a:198). Inferential statistics were used to test whether the independent variable (the LLL programme) did have an effect on the dependent variables (tolerance in terms of gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality).

An integral part of the interpretation of inferential statistics is the concept of statistical significance. Statistical significance tests begin with the supposition that the null hypothesis (H_0) is correct (Howell, 2010:93). For each belief that a researcher wants to test, two hypotheses are formulated – a null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis (also known as an experimental hypothesis). The null hypothesis is denoted by H_0 and is used to state the ‘no difference’ or ‘no correlation’ scenario (Pietersen & Maree, 2007a: 203).

The standard that the observed data must meet is known as the significance level or alpha (α). The standard that data must meet indicates the meaningfulness of the results and whether the results are merely the result of chance. By convention alpha is usually set to 0.05 (Stangor, 2011:147). In this study, the 95% level of confidence ($p \leq 0.05$)

was therefore applied as the minimum to interpret significant differences among sets of data.

5.3.2 Methods of Analysis

It is important for the researcher to choose the correct methods of analysis. Statistical tests of hypothesis may be classified as belonging to one of two groups – parametric methods and non-parametric methods. The reason for this distinction lies in the fact that statistical tests rely on certain population characteristics for their outcome to be valid. In general, parametric methods are used when one has knowledge of the underlying distribution of the study variable. Non-parametric methods are used when very little is known about the variable's distribution in the population. The sample size and the shape of the distribution of the variable of interest play a big role when the researcher has to decide which one of the two methods is more appropriate (Pietersen & Maree, 2007c: 225). Data is captured on different scales of measurement, each one based on the characteristics of the information in the data. There are nominal scales, ordinal scales, interval scales and ratio scales. In this order, the first one carries the least information, the second one slight more, the third one even more, while the last one carries the most. These four types of data can be classified into two broad classes – categorical data (nominal and ordinal) and numerical data (interval and ratio) (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:148-149). The statistical tests for the purpose of this study belong to the parametric method.

Three methods of statistical analysis were applied and will be discussed briefly. Firstly, in order to determine the internal reliability of the measurement instrument (the questionnaire) the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated. When a number of items are formulated to measure a certain construct, there should be a high degree of similarity among them since they are supposed to measure one common construct. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used to measure the internal reliability of an instrument and is based on inter-item correlations. If the items are strongly correlated with each other, their internal consistency is high and the alpha coefficient will be close to one. If, on the other hand, the items are poorly formulated and do not

correlate strongly, the alpha coefficient will be close to zero (Pietersen & Maree, 2007b: 216).

The second method utilized was to calculate the analysis of means by a dependent t-test. This technique can be used when the average scores on two quantitative variables need to be compared in a single sample, for example pre-test and post-test in the experimental group (Durrheim, 2006:211), similar to the current study. Three values are calculated and displayed with every t-test; these values are the test statistic (t-value), the degrees of freedom (n-1 in one-sample cases) and the p-value (probability value) (Pietersen & Maree, 2007c: 225).

The third method of analysis is the Pearson correlation coefficient which is a measure of strength of the linear relationship between two quantitative variables. It is therefore only appropriate if one can first establish that the relationship is linear, then perform analysis which will reveal the direction and the strength of the relationship, and also whether it is statistically significantly different from zero. For the statistical test (p-value) to be valid, it has to be assumed that the distribution of the variables in the population is normal, especially in small samples (Pietersen & Maree, 2007c: 246). A detailed description of the sample will be provided accordingly.

5.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

The following section provides the descriptive statistics of the sample included in the study. There are 99 students in the LLL programme for 2013. During the first data gathering, 97 students completed the questionnaire. During the second data gathering, 80 students completed the questionnaire. The data was filtered to include only students who completed the questionnaire twice and it resulted in 79 students.

Visual representations of the total sample (N = 97) divided into the following constructs are provided: gender, age, home language, faculty, years of registration at the University, parents' income, international students and the number of years spent in LLL.

5.4.1 Gender

Figure 5.1 demonstrates the gender distribution of the total sample ($N = 97$). The sample consisted of 30 male students and 67 female students. The male students accounted for 31% of the sample and the female students for 69%.

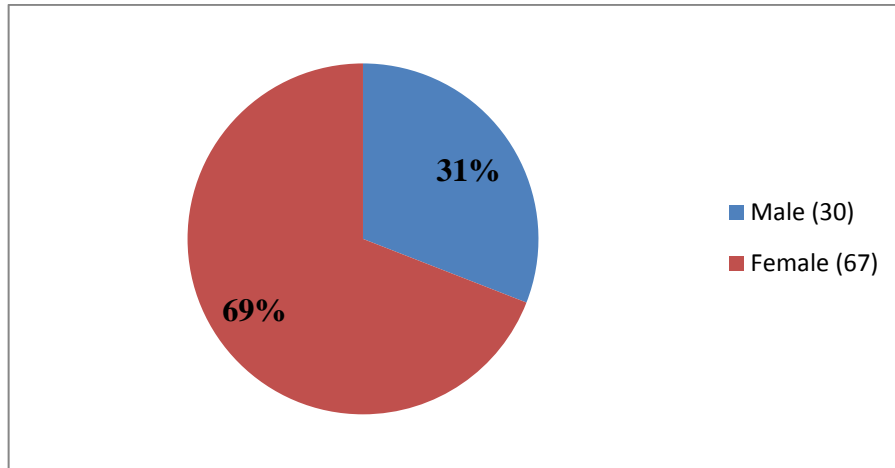


Figure 5.1 Gender distribution of sample

The sample consisted of approximately two-thirds of female students. The profile of SU in terms of gender distribution, as calculated on enrolment in 2012, was 13 711 male students and 14 112 female students (Stellenbosch University, 2013e). Although female students are in the slight majority, the gender composition of SU does not correlate with the gender distribution in the sample.

A possible factor might be that male students, after leaving residence after two or three years, prefer to stay together in private accommodation as a group of friends. During the application process for LLL in 2012, various requests were made by prospective male applicants to be placed with a specific group of male friends. As this is not the principle that LLL adheres to, but strives to enhance diversity in placements, most of these prospective male applicants did not apply.

5.4.2 Age

Although the students of the sample are within the same developmental phase, the age distribution of the sample is important information to take note of. Figure 5.2 illustrates the sample's age distribution.

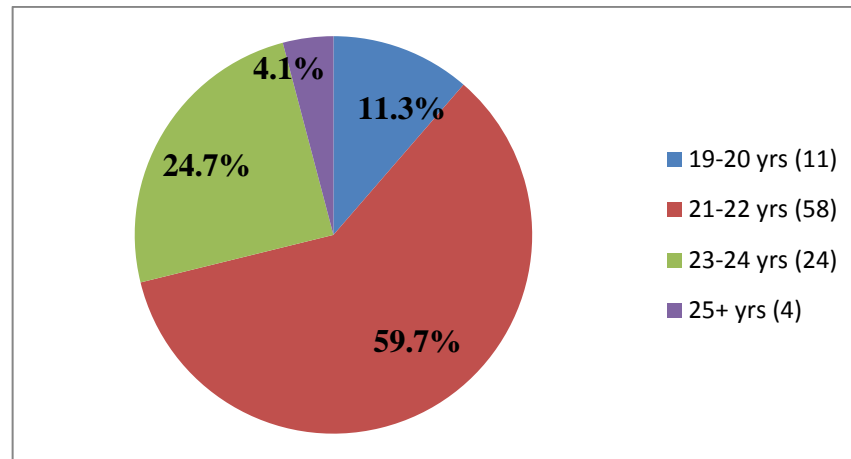


Figure 5.2 Age distribution of sample

The sample consisted of 19 – 20 year olds ($n = 11$), 21 – 22 year olds ($n = 58$), 23 – 24 year olds ($n = 24$) and students who are 25 years and older ($n = 4$). The majority of the sample (59,7%) seems to be between 21 – 22 years of age. Within the SU context this means that these students are either in their final year of the undergraduate course or first year of a postgraduate course. As defined in Chapter One, senior students refer to students who are in their third or higher, academic year at SU as well as students who are busy with postgraduate studies. In terms of chronological age, it will refer to students age 20 and older. Students in the cohort of 19-20 years are possibly currently 20 years of age and only turning 21 years of age later this year.

5.4.3 Race

The distribution of race is indicated in Figure 5.3. The sample consisted of a majority of white students ($n=66$) which constitutes 68,04%. There are 20 African students (20,06%), 9 Coloured students (9,27%) and 2 Indian / Asian students (2.06%). In comparing the racial composition of the sample with the racial distribution on SU Campus, statistics indicate that in 2012, SU had 9 221 black students. At

undergraduate and postgraduate level, this group represents 33,1% of the student population. The percentage of undergraduate black students has risen from 25,9% in 2012 to 28,3% in 2013 (Stellenbosch University, 2013b). The profile of LLL in terms of black students is slightly lower than the University.

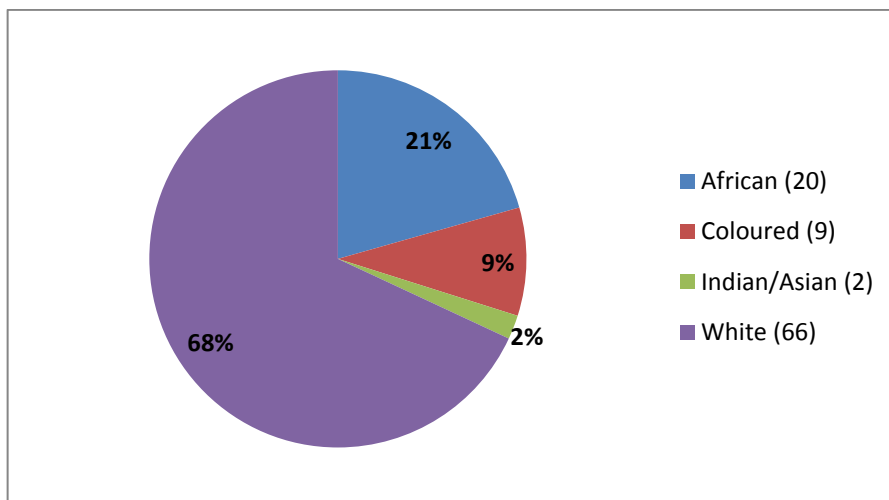


Figure 5.3 Race distribution of sample

The number of coloured students in LLL is quite low. A possible explanation could be that most of the coloured students at SU tend to be commuting students who travel to campus on a daily basis. These students therefore do not apply for any accommodation on campus.

5.4.4 Home language

The home language distribution of the sample is visually represented in Figure 5.4. It indicates that the Afrikaans speaking students were in the majority as they constituted 41,2% of the sample. The English speaking students constituted 20,6% while the Afrikaans and English speaking students were lower at 15,46%. One student indicated being Xhosa-speaking (1,03%), while other languages that were noted were Amahric (n=1), Setswana (n=3), isiZulu (n = 8), German (n=3), Shona (n = 1), Sepedi (n=3), Seswati (n=1) and Sesotho (n=1).

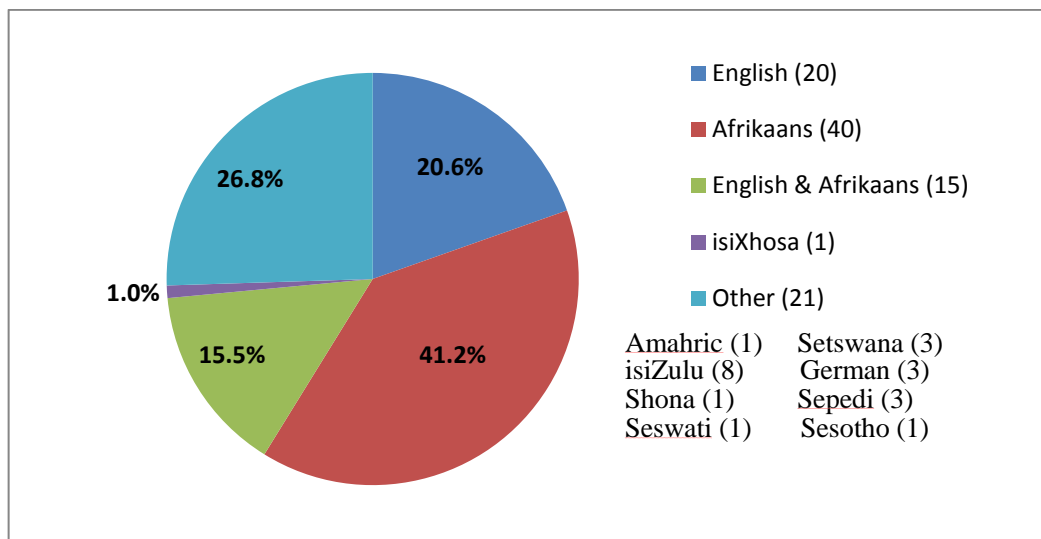


Figure 5.4 Language distribution of sample

As the three official languages of the Western Cape Province are Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa, it is quite surprising to see more of the other African languages in the sample. In the view of SU's history in terms of having Afrikaans as medium of instruction and being labelled as a 'historically white Afrikaans University', the presence of mother-tongue speakers of other languages, can be possibly attributed to transformation initiatives.

5.4.5 Faculty

A visual representation of the distribution in terms of the faculty the LLL students are allocated to according to the degrees they are studying, is provided in Figure 5.5.

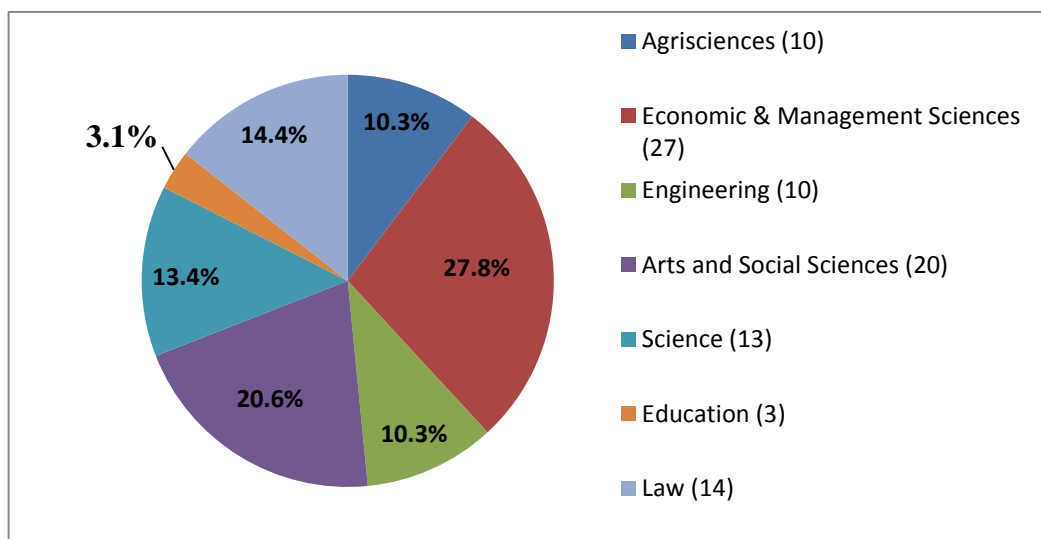


Figure 5.5 Faculty distribution of sample

There are ten Faculties at SU. The distribution according to Faculty seems to be quite scattered among seven of the Faculties. There are no students from Medicine and Health Sciences, Military Science and Theology. Medicine and Health Sciences, as well as Military Science, are situated on different campuses which do not enable students from those campuses to partake in the LLL programme. Theology is primarily a post-graduate Faculty, with a strong component of older students who tend to reside in private accommodation. The Economic and Management Sciences Faculty is represented by 27 students (27,8%), while Arts and Social Sciences are represented by 20 students (20,6%). The Faculties of Law (n=14), Science (n=13), AgriSciences (n=10), Engineering (n=10) and Education (n=3) have fewer students in the LLL programme currently. The representation of students per faculty in LLL accurately reflects the size of the faculties – for example, Economic and Management Sciences as well as Social Sciences are the two biggest faculties on campus. In total, these two faculties contribute 48.4% to the LLL sample.

5.4.6 Years of registration at the University

Figure 5.6 provides the distribution of the number of years students have been registered at the University. The majority of the students (n=34), accounting for 35,1% of the sample, are currently registered for their fourth year. Students who are currently registered for their fifth year constitute 26,8% of the sample (n=26). The third years (n=17) and sixth years (n=15) contribute 33% collectively to the sample. There are only 3 students who are currently second years and 2 students who have been registered only for their first year.

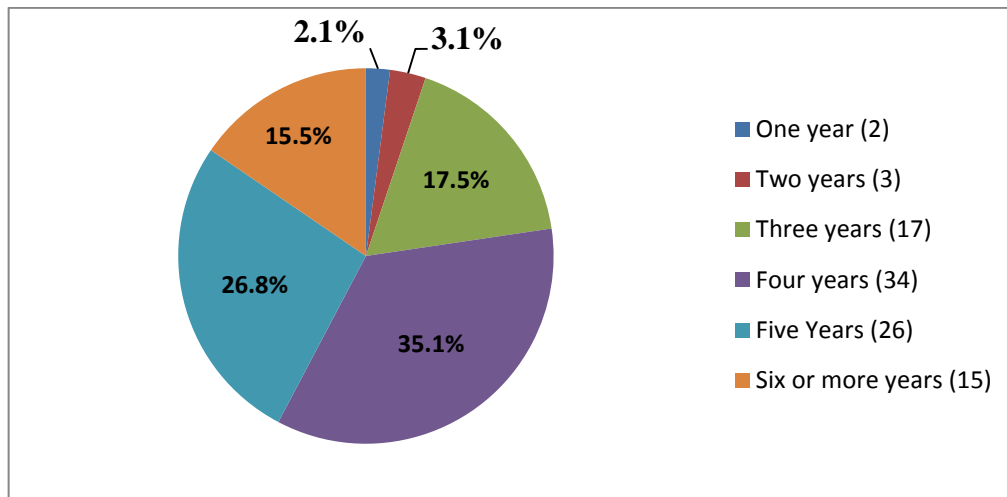


Figure 5.6 Years of registration at the University

However, as LLL is a programme specifically aimed at senior students, it is important to note that the students registered for their first year at Stellenbosch University, probably are senior students who have transferred from other universities for further their studies at SU.

5.4.7 Income of parents

The information about the income of parents provides an indication of the socio-economic status of the students. Figure 5.7 represents the distribution of parents' income of the students in the LLL programme. The majority of the students come from middle-income families ($n=66$) which accounts for 68,04% of the sample. Ten students are categorized as wealthy (10,3%) while 13 students (13,4%) are from poor socio-economic circumstances and 2 students (2,06%) from very poor circumstances. Five students indicated different responses that ranged from earning just enough to live comfortably, lower income, to parents passed away.

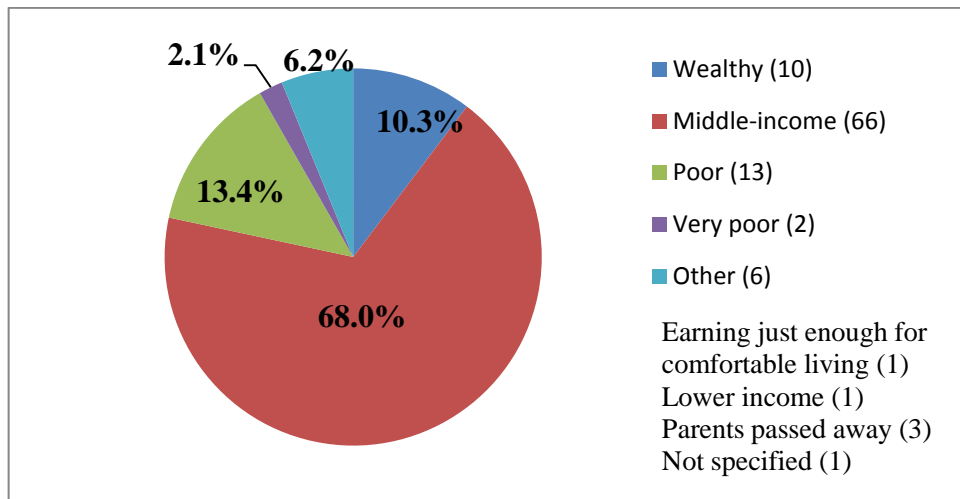


Figure 5.7 Distribution of parents' income

The majority of the sample is students with middle-income parents, which, in the researcher's experience, are the group of students that tend to seek more affordable accommodation on campus. These students do not have the financial freedom to live in private accommodation in Stellenbosch at a costly rate. The poor, very poor and other students are possibly students with bursaries from SU and one requirement is usually that they need to stay in university accommodation.

5.4.8 International Students

The distribution between national and international students is depicted in Figure 5.8. The number of South African students are the majority with 94,9% (n=92) and the international students constitute 5,2% (n=5).

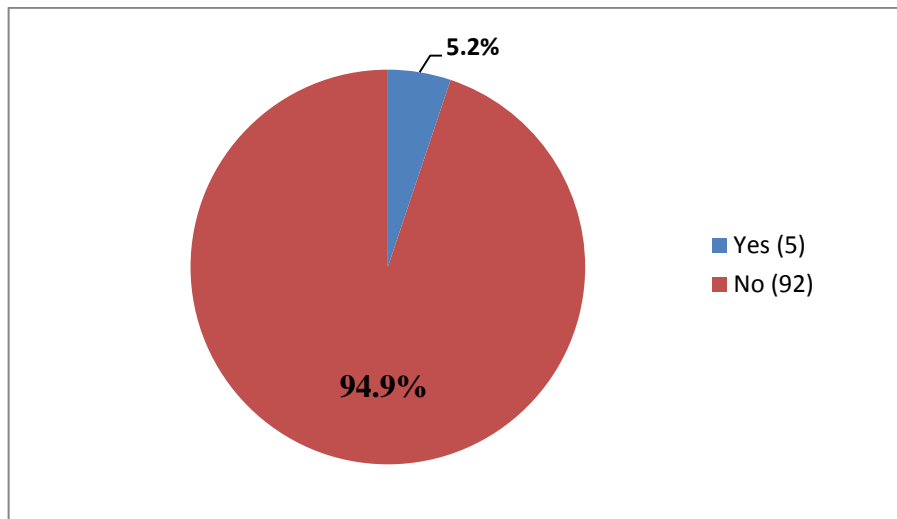


Figure 5.8 Distribution of Nationality

During 2012 a total of 3 388 international students were enrolled at SU, which amounts to more than 11% of the student population (PGIO, 2013). In comparison, the number of international students ($n=5$) participating in the LLL-experience, is significantly lower than the distribution on SU campus. A challenge in providing accommodation to international students, specifically in an initiative like LLL, is that these students tend to come for exchange programmes which last for three to six months. Their arrival and departure dates also do not always concur with the start of the academic year in South Africa. Although there is flexibility surrounding the accommodation of international students in LLL, the impracticalities tend to dominate currently.

5.4.9 Number of Years in LLL

The last description of the sample to be provided is the number of years students have spent in the LLL programme. Figure 5.9 visually represents the distribution and it is evident that the majority of the students ($n=78$) are currently in LLL for the first time. This constitutes 80.4% of the sample. There are 16 students in LLL for the second year and this amounts to 16,5%. Only three students have been in LLL for their third year (more than two years).

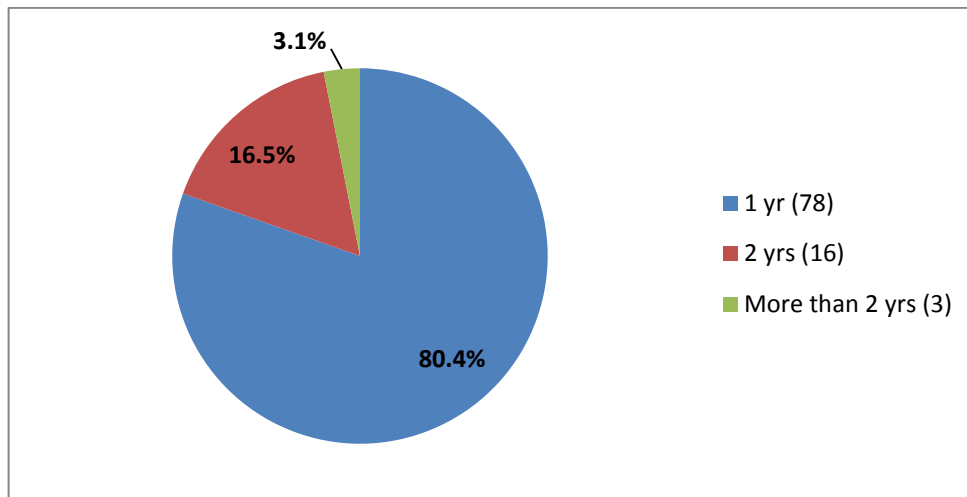


Figure 5.9 Distribution of number of years in LLL

The selection procedure of the LLL programme stipulates that students need to provide evidence of their contribution to LLL should they want to apply for a third year. The small number of third-year LLL students is therefore in context.

To summarise, the majority of the sample was represented by white, female, Afrikaans-speaking, South African students from middle-income families with an average age 21 – 22 years and experiencing their first year in the LLL programme. This is a concerning matter for the researcher as the sense of diversity might be significantly impacted by the sample. However, it currently portrays a quite accurate picture of the student profile at SU.

As the biographical characteristics of the sample have been summarised, the following section focuses on the testing of the hypotheses that guided the study.

5.5 TESTING THE HYPOTHESES

Before the commencement of the discussion of hypotheses testing, it is imperative to determine the internal reliability of the measuring instrument. The internal reliability of the measuring instrument plays a significant role in the discussion of the hypotheses.

5.5.1 Internal Reliability of Measuring Instrument

As discussed in Chapter Five, the Student Attitude Questionnaire used as measuring instrument for the study, was developed *de novo* as no other appropriate measures were available. The Student Attitude Questionnaire is divided into three sections. Biographical details regarding the students were requested in Question One of the questionnaire. Question Two consists of statements (negatively and positively formulated) that can be rated from 1 to 10. These statements measure respondents' attitudes in terms of social distance or 'closeness' to 'the other'. Question Three consists of traits of 'the other' that can be rated from 1 to 10. This question measures respondents' stereotyping of 'the other' in terms of particular traits. Question Three was included as an internal triangulation of Question Two; yet, there is a subtle difference in nuance between what is measured by the two questions.

As a standardized questionnaire was not available, it was important to determine the inter-item correlation of the questionnaire. The test used to measure inter-item correlation is Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Guidelines for the interpretation of Cronbach's alpha coefficient have been suggested and the following seem general acceptable by researchers (Pietersen & Maree, 2007b: 216):

- 0.90 high reliability
- 0.80 moderate reliability
- 0.70 low reliability

Reliability estimates of 0.80 are regarded as acceptable in most applications while values lower as 0.60 are regarded as unacceptable (Pietersen & Maree, 2007b:216). The following table provides a summary of the five constructs measured in the Student Attitude Questionnaire and their inter-item correlation. As the questionnaire was divided into the rating of statements and the rating of traits, the two sections in the questionnaire will be reported on separately.

Table 5.1 Reliability item analysis

Constructs	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
Question Two: Measure of social distance			
Gender	55.62	8.98	.65
Language	41.76	6.83	.67
Race	56.12	10.36	.69
Socio-Economic Status	46.17	9.32	.60
Nationality	42.82	7.54	.73
Question Three: Measure of stereotypical traits			
Gender	42.71	9.77	.9
Race	41.47	9.51	.92
Language	41.51	10.00	.94
Socio-Economic Status	39.54	9.6	.93
Nationality	41.65	9.7	.94

As indicated in Table 5.1, the internal reliability of Question Two seems to be low although acceptable. The internal reliability of Question Three is high. When measuring a construct, the ideal is that there should be a high degree of similarity between the constructs as they are measuring a similar construct. The lower internal reliability score of Question Two could possibly be explained by the wording and formulating of some of the sentences, specifically as Question Two consists of only statements. The reformulation of some of the statements to ensure stronger correlation between constructs can be recommended for future use. The value of α also depends on the number of items in the scale (Field, Miles & Field, 2012:799). In Question Two the number of items measuring each construct varied between 5 and 7. With such low numbers it can be expected that the alpha-value will not be very high.

As the internal reliability of the measuring instrument, the questionnaire, was proven as moderate, the five hypotheses will be discussed in the next section. Under each heading the hypothesis will be stated and the testing of the hypotheses will follow with the relevant statistical data. The hypotheses are applicable to the two tests conducted in the research – therefore each hypothesis refers to the pre- and post-

testing. All results will be displayed separately for the two questions within the Student Attitude Questionnaire.

5.5.2 Stereotype and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Gender

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender.

Hypothesis 1¹: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender.

Table 5.2 Results of Attitudes with regard to Gender

	n	\bar{X}	SD
Pre-Test: Question Two	79	56.91	8.49
Post-Test: Question Two	79	49.6	7.69
Pre-Test: Question Three	79	44.68	10.12
Post-Test: Question Three	79	41.47	9.43

Table 5.2 indicates the changes in the mean scores for both Questions Two and Three. The pre-test mean score for Question Two started at 56.91 and decreased to 49.6 during the post-test. The pre-test mean score for Question Three started at 44.68 and decreased to 41.47 during the post-test. A decrease in the means of both questions occurred. As the questionnaire measures the tolerance students portray in terms of discriminatory and stereotypical attitudes, the decrease in means over time indicate that the students became more intolerant towards gender differences. Table 5.3 portrays the statistical significance, if any, of the linear relationship between the two variables.

Table 5.3 Paired questions correlation: Gender

	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Two	6.700	78	.000
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Three	2.458	78	0.16

$P \leq 0.05$

As the hypotheses for all five constructs are non-directional, the 2-tailed level of significance is used. When comparing the pre-test scores with the post-test scores of Question Two, a significant decrease in tolerance towards gender differences is noticeable. The decrease between the pre-test scores and post-test scores of Question Three is not significant. Although the decrease of the latter is not significant, it is still a reduction in scores to take note of and will be contextualized within literature in Chapter Six.

As the change in students' attitudes towards gender is not significant, the null hypothesis is accepted:

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender.

The next construct to be discussed will be language.

5.5.3 Stereotype and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Language

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

Hypothesis 1²: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

Table 5.4 Results of attitudes with regard to Language

	N	\bar{X}	SD
Pre-Test: Question Two	79	39.24	5.01
Post-Test: Question Two	79	37.24	5.92
Pre-Test: Question Three	79	43.03	10.54
Post-Test: Question Three	79	40.89	9.81

Table 5.4 indicates the changes in the mean scores for both Questions Two and Three. The pre-test mean score for Question Two started at 39.24 and decreased to 37.24

during the post-test. The pre-test mean score for Question Three started at 43.03 and decreased to 40.89 during the post-test. A decrease in the means of both questions occurred. As the questionnaire measures the tolerance students display in terms of discriminatory and stereotypical attitudes, the decrease in means over time indicate that the students became more intolerant towards language differences. Table 5.5 portrays the statistical significance, if any, of the linear relationship between the two variables.

Table 5.5 Paired questions correlation: Language

	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Two	2.417	78	.018
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Three	1.865	78	.066

$P \leq 0.05$

When comparing the pre-test scores with the post-test scores of Question Two, a significant decrease in tolerance towards language differences is noticeable. The decrease between the pre-test scores and post-test scores of Question Three is not significant. Although the decrease of the latter is not significant, it is still a reduction in scores to take note of. Possible explanations based on literature will be provided in Chapter Six.

As the change in students' attitudes towards language is not significant, the null hypothesis is accepted:

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

The next construct to be elaborated upon will be race.

5.5.4. Stereotype and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Race

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

Hypothesis 1³: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

Table 5.6 Results of Attitudes with regard to Race

	N	\bar{X}	SD
Pre-Test: Question Two	79	56.41	10.36
Post-Test: Question Two	79	56.04	10.75
Pre-Test: Question Three	79	42.97	9.96
Post-Test: Question Three	79	40.73	9.04

Table 5.6 indicates the changes in the mean scores for both Questions Two and Three. The pre-test mean score for Question Two started at 56.41 and decreased to 56.04 during the post-test. The pre-test mean score for Question Three started at 42.97 and decreased to 40.73 during the post-test. A decrease in the means of both questions occurred. As the questionnaire measures the tolerance students portray in terms of discriminatory and stereotypical attitudes, the decrease in means over time indicate that the students became slightly more intolerant towards race differences. Table 5.7 portrays the statistical significance, if any, of the linear relationship between the two variables.

Table 5.7 Paired questions correlation: Race

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Two	.23	78	.819
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Three	1.899	78	.061

$P \leq 0.05$

When comparing the pre-test scores with the post-test scores of Question Two, no significant decrease in tolerance towards language differences is noticeable. The decrease between the pre-test scores and post-test scores of Question Three is not significant. Although the decrease of the scores in both questions are not significant, it is still a reduction in scores to take note of and further discussion of this phenomenon will follow in Chapter Six.

As the change in students' attitudes towards race is not significant, the null hypothesis is accepted:

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

The next construct to be elaborated upon will be socio-economic status (SES).

5.5.5 Stereotype and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Socio-Economic Status

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 1⁴: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

Table 5.8 Results of attitudes with regard to SES

	N	\bar{X}	SD
Pre-Test: Question Two	79	46.14	8.63
Post-Test: Question Two	79	46.28	10.26
Pre-Test: Question Three	79	40.75	10.39
Post-Test: Question Three	79	39.37	9.26

Table 5.8 indicates the changes in the mean scores for both Questions Two and Three. The pre-test score for Question Two started at 46.14 and increased to 46.28 during the post-test. The pre-test score for Question Three started at 40.75 and decreased to 39.37 during the post-test. A slight increase occurred in the means of Question Two and a slight decrease occurred in the means of Question Three. As the questionnaire measures the tolerance students portray in terms of discriminatory and stereotypical attitudes, the decrease in means over time indicate that the students became slightly more intolerant towards SES-differences. The increase over time indicates that the

students became slightly more tolerant towards SES-differences. Table 5.9 portrays the statistical significance, if any, of the linear relationship between the two variables.

Table 5.9 Paired questions correlation: SES

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Two	-.108	78	.914
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Three	1.085	78	.281

$P \leq 0.05$

When comparing the pre-test scores with the post-test scores of Question Two, the slight increase in tolerance towards SES differences is noticeable, however, not significant. The decrease between the pre-test scores and post-test scores of Question Three is not significant.

As the change in students' attitudes towards SES is not significant, the null hypothesis is accepted:

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

The next construct to be elaborated upon will be nationality, or also known as country of origin.

5.5.6 Stereotype and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Nationality

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

Hypothesis 1⁵: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

Table 5.10 Results of attitudes with regard to Nationality

	N	\bar{X}	SD
Pre-Test: Question Two	79	43.58	7.2
Post-Test: Question Two	79	41.91	7.8
Pre-Test: Question Three	79	43.49	10.06
Post-Test: Question Three	79	40.59	9.6

Table 5.10 indicates the changes in the mean scores for both Questions Two and Three. The pre-test mean score for Question Two started at 43.58 and decreased to 41.91 during the post-test. The pre-test mean score for Question Three started at 43.49 and decreased to 40.59 during the post-test. A decrease was experienced in the scores of both questions. As the questionnaire measures the tolerance students portray in terms of discriminatory and stereotypical attitudes, the decrease in means over time indicate that the students became slightly more intolerant towards differences in terms of nationality. Table 5.11 portrays the statistical significance, if any, of the linear relationship between the two variables.

Table 5.11 Paired questions correlation: Nationality

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Two	1.598	78	.114
Pre-Test & Post-Test: Question Three	2.646	78	.010

$P \leq 0.05$

When comparing the pre-test scores with the post-test scores of Question Two, no significant decrease in tolerance towards nationality is noticeable. The decrease between the pre-test scores and post-test scores of Question Three is statistically significant. As this question measures respondents' stereotyping of 'the other' in terms of particular traits, it indicates a statistically significant change with regard to tolerance in terms of nationality. The decrease in mean scores does indicate a higher level of intolerance of students towards differences in terms of nationality. However, as the combined change in both questions in students' attitudes towards nationality is not significant, the null hypothesis is accepted:

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

Throughout the testing of the hypotheses on all five constructs, the difference in significance between Question Two and Three in the Student Attitude Questionnaire (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012) was evident. Question Two measured social distance and Question Three measured stereotyping. Social distance, as originally defined by Park (1924), is the grades and degree of understanding and intimacy which characterize personal and social relations generally. As defined earlier in Chapter Three, stereotypes are psychological representations of the characteristics of people that belong to particular groups (McGarty, Yzerbyt & Spears, 2002). Each question therefore measured the construct in a different way and a subtle difference in nuance is evident. The data obtained in Question Three can therefore be used as a control mechanism for Question Two. An additional matter that came to the fore, was when the raw data was analyzed, it was clearly that some of the respondents repeatedly chose either a '5' or '6' on both Questions Two and Three. In terms of a scale of 1 – 10, this indicates an average, implying that the students might be choosing socially acceptable answers rather than indicating their true perceptions about the issues at hand.

This section aimed to measure the reliability of the Student Attitude Questionnaire as measuring instrument as well as test the hypotheses that guided the study. Concluding remarks will follow.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The most important characteristics of the sample were highlighted in this chapter – the majority of the sample was represented by white, female, Afrikaans-speaking, South African students from middle-income families with an average age 21 – 22 years and experiencing their first year in the LLL programme. The context of the sample significantly impacts the obtained results.

The aim of this chapter was to test the hypotheses stated in Chapter One. Although changes in terms of mean scores were obtained, no significant change could be statistically supported. The hypotheses relating to the five constructs – gender, race, nationality, language and socio-economic status – are not statistically supported and the null hypotheses were accepted. This signifies that there is no significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regards to gender, race, nationality, language and socio-economic status during the time frame the study was conducted. A more detailed discussion and evaluation of the results, as well as conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the study are presented in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the most important findings of the research will be discussed. Five hypotheses guided the study, as introduced in Chapter Five. This chapter will consider the stated hypotheses individually and provide possible explanations from the literature for the findings. The reliability of the Student Attitude Questionnaire as measuring instrument will be discussed where after programme evaluation will be reflected upon. The current study's limitations, conclusions and recommendations for future study will conclude the chapter.

6.2 DISCUSSION OF HYPOTHESES

The discussion of the five hypotheses that guided this study is conducted under five separate headings:

- Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Gender
- Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Language
- Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Race
- Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to SES
- Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Nationality

The hypothesis will be re-introduced in each discussion where after the findings will be commented upon. As the five constructs collectively could be termed ‘diversity’, a general discussion on the findings, based on literature, will follow.

6.2.1 Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Gender

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender.

Hypothesis 1¹: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to gender.

As indicated in Table 5.2 (see Chapter Five) the mean scores for both Question Two and Question Three decreased from the pre-test to the post-test. The decrease in

Question Two is statistically significant, while the decrease in Question Three is not significant. As there was a decrease in scores on both questions, it indicates that the students in LLL moved from a more tolerant level towards gender during the pre-test to a less tolerant level towards gender during the post-test. Thus, a change in senior students' stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes with regards to gender occurred, decreasing to a more intolerant level from February to May 2013.

It is important to note during this discussion that the sample consisted of 31% males (n=30) and 69% females (n=67). In terms of these numbers, the number of females per LLL house would be more than the number of males. The fewer males in the programme were a concern to the researcher. However, Zhao and Kuh (2004) point out that men, transfer students and part-time students, are less likely to participate in a learning community before graduation. The fact that men are in the minority in the LLL programme is therefore in line with international experience.

A factor that could explain the increasing level of intolerance could be that most students come from single-sex student housing. There are only a few residences on Stellenbosch University campus accommodating mixed gender. For the majority of the LLL students this is therefore their first experience in living with a person from a different gender.

6.2.2 Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes towards Language

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

Hypothesis 1²: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to language.

There was, as indicated in Table 5.4 (see Chapter Five) a decrease regarding tolerance between the pre-test and post-test scores of both Question Two and Question Three. A significant decrease occurred between the scores of Question Two, but the decrease between the scores of Question Three was not significant. The change in scores implicate that the LLL students moved from a more tolerant level to a less tolerant

level regarding language as a construct of ‘the other’. Thus, a change in senior students’ stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes with regards to language occurred, decreasing to a more intolerant level from February to May 2013.

The majority of the sample was Afrikaans-speaking students (n=40), English-speaking students were 20, English and Afrikaans students were 15. These two languages dominated the sample as it constituted 79.1%. In practice therefore, very few students speaking a different home language than Afrikaans and English were placed within one LLL house. These students might only have English or Afrikaans as their second, third or fourth language, impacting their communication skills vastly.

South Africa has 11 official languages. English is the most commonly spoken language in official and commercial public life – but only the fifth most spoken home language. English is generally understood across the country, being the language of business, politics and the media. But it only ranks a joint fifth (with Setswana) as a home language (South Africa Info, 2013). According to the 2011 census, isiZulu is the mother tongue of 22.7% of South Africa's population, followed by isiXhosa at 16%, Afrikaans at 13.5%, English at 9.6%, Setswana at 8% and Sesotho at 7.6%. The remaining official languages are spoken at home by less than 5% of the population each (Statistics South Africa, 2013). The practical exposure of students to languages, other than English, despite being the home language of only 9.6% of South African citizens, is therefore quite minimal. The primary and secondary school system in South Africa unfortunately also does not promote multilingualism. Zuma (2013:95) states that the imposition of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in Black schools under apartheid led to an uprising. Many in the white community simply had no incentive to learn any of the other African languages and one tragically suspects that even today in South Africa most white people still do not know any of the other official languages other than English and Afrikaans. This might be possible in the LLL context.

The challenging communication between the LLL housemates might be a contributing factor to the higher level of intolerance.

6.2.3 Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Race

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

Hypothesis 1³: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to race.

As indicated in Table 5.6 (see Chapter Five) there was a slight reduction in the mean scores for both Questions Two and Three. The changes in the scores were not statistically significant. However, the scores changed to a less tolerant level regarding race. Thus, a change in senior students' stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes with regards to race occurred, decreasing to a more intolerant level from February to May 2013.

A South African study sought to account for the lack of interracial mixing amongst black and white students from four South African universities using an internet-based survey (Finchilescu, Tredoux, Mynhardt, Pillay & Mulanga, 2007). It was found that reasons for the lack of interracial contact were differentially endorsed as a function of race. Endorsed to varying degrees by black and white students, the eight reasons that accounted for the lack of interracial contact were language, interests, racial dissociation, behaviour, race issues, culture, rejection and socioeconomic status. Black students gave high endorsement to racial dissociation, economic status, culture and rejection while white students endorsed language and race issues to a greater extent than black students. Both black and white students gave similar ratings for interests and behaviour (Finchilescu *et al.*, 2007).

Some of these abovementioned reasons might be contributing to the higher level of intolerance within the LLL context as well. The researcher is of the opinion that these are also issues that might be resolved should regular interracial contact over time occur.

6.2.4 Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to SES

- Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.
- Hypothesis 1⁴: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to socio-economic status.

Table 5.8 (see Chapter Five) portrays the changes in the mean scores for both Questions Two and Three. The pre-test score for Question Two slightly increased during the post-test score. The pre-test score for Question Three decreased slightly during the post-test score. None of these changes were statistically significant. However, the scores for Question Two reflect an increase in tolerance towards SES as a construct of diversity. The scores for Question Three reflect a decrease in tolerance towards SES. An ambivalent stance seems to have been created although the decrease in scores is statistically bigger. Thus, a change in senior students' stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes with regards to SES occurred, decreasing to a slightly more intolerant level from February to May 2013.

The majority of the sample came from middle-income families (n=66), 10 students from wealthy families and 13 from poor circumstances. Two students categorized themselves as very poor while 5 others indicated a variety of responses. Scott, Yeld and Hendry (2007) explain that broadening access to higher education in South Africa has meant that a wide range of students with diverse levels of preparedness, especially scholastic preparedness but also social, epistemological and financial challenges have entered higher education. The construct of socio-economic status, within the South African historical context, might therefore be linked to race and other diverse constructs – providing the potential to challenge the tolerance of fellow students.

Within the LLL programme, students cannot have their meals at a residence; they need to prepare food themselves. Each house has the necessary kitchen infrastructure and equipment. One of the requirements of the LLL programme is that the students of a LLL house should have a meal together at least once a week. Due to the fact that the students need to compile a budget to buy food together as well as toilet paper and

basic utilities for the house, they might be more at ease with one another on this level in comparison to the rest of the constructs.

6.2.5 Stereotypical and Discriminatory Attitudes with regard to Nationality

Hypothesis 0: There is not a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality.

Hypothesis 1⁵: There is a significant change in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes with regard to nationality

The mean scores for both Questions Two and Three, as indicated in Table 5.10 (see Chapter Five) have decreased from the pre-tests to the post-tests. These changes are not statistically significant. However, the scores changed to a less tolerant level regarding nationality. Thus, a change in senior students' stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes with regards to nationality occurred, decreasing to a more intolerant level from February to May 2013.

The sample consisted of national (n=92) and international (n=5) students. Only a few LLL houses therefore are hosting international students but still an increase regarding intolerance was found. Andrade (2006) explains that adjustment problems for international students tend to focus on language issues, especially in terms of vocabulary and speed. They also struggled in terms of social adjustment, felt more lonely and homesick. In a study conducted by Zhao, Kuh and Carini (2005) findings indicated that international students spent less time socializing and relaxing than their national counterparts. The literature highlighted a few important issues that could have contributed to the increase level of intolerance towards nationality within the LLL context.

6.3 GENERAL DISCUSSION ON THE FIVE CONSTRUCTS

As the five constructs discussed in the section above, collectively form 'the other' and are constructs within diversity, a general discussion on the findings will follow

accordingly. The results indicated for all five constructs – gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality – a change in senior students’ stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes, decreasing to a more intolerant level from February to May 2013. The discussion aims to provide possible explanations from literature for the findings.

6.3.1 Adjustment Process

As the LLL-programme focuses on exposing students to ‘the other’ through an experiential learning process, students are placed in a diverse setting without being familiar with the rest of the students in the LLL-house. This requires adjustment from an individual to the new environment. Takeurchi, Lepak, Marinova and Yun (2007:929) posit that general adjustment refers to how the individual experiences familiarity, psychological comfort and the environmental features. The adjustment process consists of four phases, which are (Hofstede, 2003:209):

Phase 1 – The individual experiences a form of euphoria or excitement related to the novelty of seeing the new environment and having novel experiences. This is also referred to as the ‘honeymoon phase’.

Phase 2 - During this ‘crisis phase’, the reality of change and the challenge of fitting into the new environment occurs. The individual may experience frustrations, disappointment, impatience and tension. The new culture is viewed with suspicion and dislike and there may be increased attempts to insulate one’s self from the foreign culture. Culture shock may be experienced at this phase.

Phase 3 - It is during this period, that acculturation sets in, whereby the individual is more familiar with the local conditions and values and he may become more self-confident in becoming involved with the new social network. Acculturation occurs when the individual has *chosen* to make an acceptable adaptation to the new environment.

Phase 4 – The individual may accept the new environment or continue struggling to adapt. Feelings of alienation may occur or over-familiarisation may result, whereby the individual becomes immersed in the new customs and traditions (Hofstede, 2003:209).

Within the adjustment process, and as the data gathering process lasted from February to May 2013, it seems that the most of the LLL-students are in the ‘crisis phase’. The students seem to be realizing the reality of living together and dealing with daily frustrations in a diversified manner. As the students are confronted with diversity in their living spaces, it might currently be causing internal conflict with regard to their own perceptions of ‘the other’. Another perspective is provided from Social Cognitive Theory by Albert Bandura.

6.3.2 Social Cognitive Theory: Albert Bandura

Albert Bandura is a social learning theorist and views the social situation, as context where behaviour takes place, with great significance (Thom, Louw, Van Ede & Ferns, 1998). Bandura (Mayer & Sutton, 1996:142-143) argues that human beings do more than just respond to the stimuli around them in terms of adjustment, they create new ‘environments’ due to their ability to imagine outcomes, future possibilities, modify behaviours and the skill to plan strategies. Bandura introduced the idea of *reciprocal determinism* asserting that the sources of behavioural patterns come from within the individual as well as from the environment, and therefore are parts of a system of mutual influences (Mayer & Sutton, 1996:142-143).

Bandura believed that expectations can create behaviours and the role of a self-fulfilling prophecy is central to this notion (Bandura, 1995). Thom *et al.*, (1998:387) define a self-fulfilling prophecy as when certain predictions are made, this could create certain expectations which could have an influence on later behaviour. The LLL student who ‘expects’ to be unhappy in a new LLL house may experience his or her new environment in a negative manner, so creating a self-fulfilling prophecy. Central to Bandura’s theory is the concept of *self-efficacy*, namely the belief in the individual’s ability to perform appropriate behaviours. Bandura described these beliefs as determinants of how people think, behave, and feel (Mayer & Sutton, 1996:144). Bandura (1995) and others have found that an individual’s self-efficacy plays a major role in how goals, tasks, and challenges are approached. People with a strong sense of self-efficacy tend to have the following characteristics:

- View challenging problems as tasks to be mastered;

- Develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate;
- Form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities; and
- Recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments.

The following characteristics tend to be evident in people with a weak sense of self-efficacy:

- Avoid challenging tasks;
- Believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities;
- Focus on personal failings and negative outcomes; and
- Quickly lose confidence in personal abilities (Bandura, 1995).

The possibility of LLL students having a weak sense of self-efficacy can be explored. Within a challenging and sometimes confrontational situation, like the experiential model of LLL, people with a weak sense of self-efficacy tend to lose confidence in their personal abilities, avoid the challenging tasks and believe that it is beyond their capabilities. The role of the self-fulfilling prophecy and the concept of self-efficacy could have contributed to higher levels of intolerance within the LLL context.

6.3.3 Developmental Theory of Erikson: Intimacy versus Isolation

Another important aspect to discuss, is the developmental phase in which the students currently are. Erikson's Developmental Theory taken from Erikson and Erikson (1998:54-82) has eight developmental or 'crises' phases. Each of the eight stages requires the individual to accomplish a task before moving on to the next stage. According to Erikson's developmental model, they are currently in Stage Six (age 19 – 25) and the crisis to be achieved is Intimacy versus Isolation. According to Bee (1996:56) this is the stage whereby the young adult has the task of creating one or more intimate relationships or experience feelings of isolation. The young adult has to develop his or her specific goals and values, being a shift from the here and now orientation of the childhood years to a more future oriented focus (Bee, 1996:57). It is further stated that the young adult needs to develop other sound identities, namely, an occupational identity, a gender role identity and religious and political identities. Not resolving these identities may result in a sense of confusion.

Erikson (in Hook, 2002:286) reveals that at this stage, prejudices learned earlier may be consolidated, with the danger of the individual making strong and cruel distinctions between the foreign and the familiar, often against the very group of individuals with whom intimacy is being focused upon or sought after. The implications for the young adult would be that if he or she has not as yet formed a sound sense of identity and is placed in a foreign environment, he or she may struggle to form close relationships and feel isolated. This may well impact on the adjustment process.

The developmental stage, and establishment of identities, as explained in the section above, may contribute to the higher levels of intolerance of LLL-students. Prejudices learned at an earlier stage may be consolidated in this developmental phase and will influence adjustment significantly, especially in a new environment where the student is confronted with diversity. An additional contributing factor might be that the historical legacy of a divided South African society provided minimal inter-racial interaction for the parents and grandparents of the current students at SU. Most of the current students at SU attended primary and secondary schooling in homogeneous schools with minimal diversity. The exposure of students to a diversified environment, before becoming part of the LLL programme, was limited.

The true perception of 'the other' might therefore be more daunting for students to admit. Through the process of being exposed experientially to 'the other', the student might be confronted with his/her own prejudice, stereotype and discriminatory attitudes. This is an internal dialogue that a student is confronted with that might be quite overwhelming and therefore might contribute to increased intolerance towards the trigger – 'the other'.

It is important to emphasize that the students are not passive recipients of stimuli through this process; all individuals are free social agents, actively participating in their own development. Haralambos and Holborn (2008:665) report that internal or external confrontations due to contradictory socializing influences are experienced, and making a decision will be required. The different experiences, varying patterns of socialization, different perceptions and difference in the inclination to conform, contribute to each individual's uniqueness. This process is called 'individuation' and

forms a part of socialisation. The deduction can be made that the LLL programme can serve as a facilitating factor in the interpersonal and intrapersonal growth of students.

This section conceptualized the findings within literature and provided several perspectives explaining and clarifying the results. It was indicated in the results that students became more intolerant regarding stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes as the year prolonged. Although no significant results were obtained, scores indicated a decrease in tolerance, which is contradictory to the outcome of the LLL programme. However, as the literature stipulated, several reasons can be found for the increase in intolerance due to the adjustment process, the self-fulfilling prophecy and the developmental phase the students are currently in. It needs to be acknowledged that the students are not only exposed to the LLL programme, as they have a variety of experiences in the curricular, social and familial contexts. These experiences could have contributed to their attitudes with regard to stereotype and discrimination.

The next section elaborates on the reliability of the measuring instrument used in the study.

6.4 THE RELIABILITY OF THE STUDENT ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

As the Student Attitude Questionnaire (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012) was developed specifically for the study, determining the internal reliability in terms of inter-item correlations is important. As discussed in previous chapters, the Student Attitude Questionnaire is divided into three divisions, Question One, Question Two and Question Three. Biographical details regarding the student were requested in Question One of the questionnaire. Question Two consists of statements (negatively and positively formulated) that can be rated from 1 to 10. The following provides examples of statements (varied in terms of constructs):

Question Two: Please indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling a number on a 10-point scale where 1 = totally disagree and 10 = totally agree.

- *I distrust people who belong to the opposite sex*

- *I prefer to associate with people who belong to my age group*
- *I do not regard people who belong to a different race group as inferior*
- *I never use derogatory language to describe people from the opposite sex*
- *I like associating with people from another country*

Question Three consists of traits that can be rated from 1 to 10 in association with a statement. The following provides an example.

Question Three: Please rate each of the groups in terms of the following traits:

People from the opposite sex are:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Untrustworthy</i>					<i>Trustworthy</i>				
<i>Inferior</i>					<i>Superior</i>				
<i>Lazy</i>					<i>Hardworking</i>				
<i>Unreliable</i>					<i>Reliable</i>				
<i>Dishonest</i>					<i>Honest</i>				
<i>Ignorant</i>					<i>Well informed</i>				
<i>Undisciplined</i>					<i>Disciplined</i>				

Table 5.1 (see Chapter Five) provided reliability item analysis of the questionnaire. The internal reliability of Question Two seems to be low although acceptable. The internal reliability of Question Three is high. The difference in reliability between the two questions might be due to the formulation of the statements in Question Two. The formulation and wording of the statements can be revisited. The possibility of expanding the amount of items that investigates each construct can be investigated, while the researcher is cautious regarding the length of the questionnaire.

When developing a measuring instrument, there are certain basic principles for formulating the questions of a questionnaire (Delpont & Roestenburg, 2011:192). All the basic principles have been adhered to, although the questionnaire was not available in the home language of all the respondents. It was only available in Afrikaans and English. As there are some of the respondents in the sample whose

home language was not either Afrikaans or English, this could have an effect. Creswell (2009:103) emphasises the importance of having a pilot study with a small sample when new instrumentation is being developed. It was unfortunately not possible to conduct a pilot study with a small sample before the pre-testing in this study. Due to the moderate inter-item correlation of the Student Attitude Questionnaire, it is recommended that the abovementioned suggestions be incorporated.

The researcher believes it to be an instrument that could be used to gather useful and detailed data, specifically within the LLL programme. The psychometric properties of the Student Attitude Questionnaire (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012) should therefore be further investigated concerning the validity and reliability within the South African context.

6.5 PROGRAMME EVALUATION

As indicated in previous chapters, the goal of the study was to evaluate **one** of the outcomes of the Listening, Living and Learning programme by investigating change (if any) in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes. The constructs measured to obtain the abovementioned goal, were gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality (country of origin). Although programme evaluation is a much more comprehensive process, due to the limited scope of the dissertation, the parameters of the study have been set to evaluate only one outcome of the LLL programme.

Programme evaluation, in general, refers to a process in which research methods are used to assess programmes (Smith, 2010:20) and investigate the effectiveness of interventions (Rossi, Lipsey & Freeman, 2004:16). Programme evaluation is important as it helps to clarify and describe how the intervention works, which goals it is pursuing and how the programme is monitored and assessed (Smith, 2010:5). As the purpose of the programme evaluation is to gather information for improving the LLL programme, formative evaluation was utilized. Formative evaluations are regarded as activities directed at improving a programme's design, planning, development and implementation (Monette, Sullivan & DeJong, 2008). In essence, by

evaluating a programme's objectives, one is, in effect, testing hypotheses about how one thinks a client will change after a period of time in the programme (Grinnell, Gabor & Unrau, 2012:170).

The one outcome or objective of LLL that was evaluated for the purpose of this study was:

The LLL programme aims to develop students as agents of change to continue establishing and supporting healthy communities when they leave SU after graduation. Positive social change needs to be continued and is not bound to SU campus, time or space.

In order to act as agents of change on Stellenbosch campus, and when they leave, they need to be familiar with diversity, as well as attitudes regarding stereotypes and discrimination. Five constructs, for the purpose of this study, collectively formed the concept of 'diversity'. The students' attitudes regarding the five constructs were tested by using the Student Attitude Questionnaire (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012). As indicated earlier in the chapter, it has proven to yield reliable results.

The results indicated for all five constructs – gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality – a change in senior students' stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes, decreasing to a more intolerant level from February to May 2013. However, the change was not significant and the outcome is contradictory to what the vision of the LLL programme is.

As the Social Change Model (Komives & Wagner, 2009) served as the theoretical framework for the LLL programme for the purpose of this study, a reflection on the model in the context of developing LLL students as agents of change is required. The three levels of the model will be discussed accordingly as these three levels interact and together contribute to the overall goal of the model – positive social change:

a) Individual level

Three values are applicable to the individual level – consciousness of self, congruence and commitment. The individual values involve qualities of individuals that contribute

to positive group functioning (Haber, 2011:67). Komives *et al.* (2009) explain that consciousness of self refers to the understanding of one's values, one's motivations and having knowledge of one's passions, goals and dreams. Congruence refers to living one's values and commitment can be defined as dedication to one's passions, goals and dreams.

The researcher is of the opinion, based on the results of the study that the majority of the LLL students are currently still functioning on the individual level of the SCM. These students, having finished their first semester in the LLL setting, tend to still be in a self-understanding process regarding their opinions and stances on controversial matters, and being confronted with 'the other'.

b) Group level

The values in the group level are collaboration, common purpose and controversy with civility. The group values reflect group skills and processes that contribute to affecting positive change (Haber, 2011:67). Komives *et al.* (2009) define collaboration as commitment to work together and having a consensus-driven approach. Having a common purpose refers to functioning as a group with aligned goals and a shared vision. The value of controversy with civility refers to the group being able to welcome diverse opinions and points of view, and knowing that generativity comes from disagreement.

Based on the results of the study, the majority of the LLL students have currently not reached this level of the SCM. The increasing levels of intolerance regarding constructs representing 'the other' do not portray students as having a common purpose and shared vision. The researcher is of the hope that this might develop during the second semester in the LLL setting.

c) Societal level

Citizenship is the value emphasized on societal level. The community value focuses on the greater community's needs (Haber, 2011:67). Citizenship, according to Komives, Wagner and Associates (2009), occurs when individuals recognize they are part of something larger than themselves. The interconnected nature of the world and

the role each person has in making it a better place is recognized. The researcher is of the opinion, based on the results of the study, that the majority of the LLL students have not yet reached the societal level of the SCM. This might have occurred on an individual level, but as a collective, it does not seem that there is recognition of citizenship. The researcher is of the hope that this might develop, in concurrence with the group level values, during the second semester in the LLL setting.

In revisiting the outcome of the LLL programme being evaluated in this study, namely that it aims to develop students as agents of change to continue establishing and supporting healthy communities when they leave SU after graduation, development in terms of the Social Change Model of Leadership has occurred. The LLL students seem to be still functioning on the individual level of the SCM and the other two levels, Group and Societal, still needs to be reached. The LLL students have therefore been exposed to diversity and social change issues, and development as social change agents seem to slowly occur. However, additional research studies need to monitor the development of students as social change agents in the second semester, and beyond, of LLL.

Due to the short timespan between measurements and the adjustment processes of the students, the Student Attitude Questionnaire provided valuable information in terms of the journey LLL-students travel when entering the programme – both on an interpersonal and intrapersonal level.

Possible limitations in the study will be addressed accordingly.

6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Certain variables could have possibly influenced the results of the study. These include the following:

- 6.6.1 Due to the limited scope of this study, a comprehensive evaluation of the LLL programme was not possible. The formative evaluation focused only on the core element of change, if any, in stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes of students within LLL.

- 6.6.2 The timespan between the pre-test and post-test had to be adjusted due to institutional factors and resulted in being only a few months. The limited timespan influenced the results of the study as the ideal would have been to add a third data gathering phase in order to more comprehensively understand the journey of the LLL student in terms of tolerance regarding ‘the other’.
- 6.6.3 The quantitative approach utilized for the study yielded valuable data. Triangulation with qualitative data would have added richness to the gathered information. Due to the limited scope of this study, a mixed method approach was not recommended. The research will continue and follow-up studies will be conducted, both of a quantitative and qualitative nature.
- 6.6.4 For the purpose of this study, the population was the same as the sample. The majority of the sample was represented by white, female, Afrikaans-speaking, South African students from middle-income families with an average age 21 – 22 years and experiencing their first year in the LLL programme. Although this is a true reflection on the dynamics of Stellenbosch University, the context of the sample significantly impacted the obtained results.
- 6.6.5 The study is situated in the field of higher education studies and focuses on the outcomes and results of a particular student development programme at Stellenbosch University. The evaluation of the programme was therefore contextualized within one institution and the results will not be necessarily be generalizable.

Based on the limitations discussed in this section, the recommendations are stated in the next section.

6.7 GENERAL SUGGESTIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

From the study, the following recommendations are made:

- 6.7.1 The psychometric properties of the Student Attitude Questionnaire (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012) should be further investigated concerning the validity and reliability within the South African context.

- 6.7.2 The results of the formative evaluation and the implications for the one outcome evaluated should be incorporated in the LLL programme. The necessary adjustments need to be made to the LLL programme to ensure that the outcome is achieved.
- 6.7.3 A comprehensive programme evaluation of all the outcomes of the Listening, Living and Learning programme should be conducted. The adjustment of the LLL programme should then be done accordingly to ensure alignment with the envisaged outcomes.
- 6.7.4 The adjustment process and contributing dynamics of students in an experiential educational setting like the LLL programme should be investigated in order to align the necessary preparation, training and support for these students to equip them to adequately manage the adjustment.
- 6.7.5 More research regarding the LLL programme is advisable in order to generate a body of knowledge regarding learning communities within South Africa. This can serve as a framework for other HEIs in South Africa to establish learning communities on their respective campuses.
- 6.7.6 A mixed-method approach with a strong qualitative focus for future studies, including longer timespans between data-gathering, should be considered.
- 6.7.7 For future research, the inclusion of LLL-students who have completed the programme and left the university can be investigated.
- 6.7.8 For future research, the inclusion of the senior staff of SU, acting as mentors for the LLL houses, can be considered.

6.8 CONCLUSION

Higher Education Institutions, including Stellenbosch University, need to implement several strategies to enhance diversity and social integration among the student population. One intervention aimed at achieving this is the Listening, Living and

Learning programme (LLL), a senior student housing programme, directed at minimizing stereotyping and discrimination among students. The overarching goal of the study was to evaluate one of the outcomes of the Listening, Living and Learning programme by investigating change (if any) in senior students' stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes.

One of the intended outcomes of the LLL programme is to develop the LLL students as agents of change on Stellenbosch campus, and in the wider community once they leave the university. In terms of this study, however, only changes in their behavior and attitudes with regard to diversity were measured. Five constructs, for the purpose of this study, collectively formed the concept of 'diversity' – gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality. The students' attitudes regarding the five constructs were tested by using the Student Attitude Questionnaire (Fourie-Malherbe, 2012). As indicated earlier in the chapter, it has proven to yield reliable results.

The results indicated for all five constructs – gender, language, race, socio-economic status and nationality – a change in senior students' stereotypical and discriminatory attitudes, increasing to a more intolerant level from the pre-test to the post-test. The changes were not statistically significant. The deduction can then be made that increased levels of interaction among students in a LLL house, over a five month period, do not lead to reduced stereotyping and diminished bias. The question can be posed whether this is concerning as it is contradictory to what one of the outcomes, and vision of the LLL programme is.

The short timespan between measurements and the adjustment, as well as developmental processes of the students, impacted the results significantly. However, the Student Attitude Questionnaire provided valuable information in terms of the journey LLL students travel from entering the programme – both on an interpersonal and intrapersonal level - as well as feedback on the programme content and outcome. This research study contributes, *firstly*, to a starting point for discussion to allow HEIs to consider learning communities as part of the co-curricular sphere in South Africa. *Secondly*, the research indicated the vital role learning communities play in students' in-class and out-of-class development. *Thirdly*, the study highlights the need for

discussion and research on the integration of curricular and co-curricular learning in South Africa, as well as the establishing of partnerships between all role players in student affairs and faculty. Together, a multi-faceted, educational experience for each student can be developed with the aim of enabling positive change in South Africa.

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ADDENDA**ADDENDUM A: THE STUDENT ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE**

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
STUDENT ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE
 (© Fourie-Malherbe, 2012)

Dear Student

As a member of a LLL house you have the opportunity of interacting with a variety of people from different genders, nationalities, races, language groups and socio-economic status.

This is a study of attitudes toward different groups of people. Specifically the purpose of the study is to understand the views of LLL inhabitants towards a diversity of people. The questions in this survey may be of a sensitive nature; yet, we would appreciate you answering them in a frank and honest manner. This questionnaire is anonymous – please do not put your name or the name of your LLL house on the completed questionnaire.

You need only to tick the appropriate box in the demographic section of the questionnaire and to circle a number on each of the items in the other two sections of the questionnaire. It will take you about 15-20 min to complete the questionnaire.

Your answers are vital to the success of this study. We thank you in advance for your participation.

1. Demographic data (please tick the appropriate box):

1.1 In which Faculty do you study?

AgriSciences	
Arts and Social Sciences	
Economic and Management Sciences	
Education	
Engineering	
Law	
Medicine and Health Sciences	
Military Science	
Science	
Theology	

1.2 Including the current year (2013), how long have you been at Stellenbosch University ?

One year	
Two years	
Three years	
Four years	
Five years	
Six or more years	

1.3 What is your sex?

Male	
Female	

1.4 How old are you?

18 or younger	
19-20 years	
21-22 years	
23-24 years	
25+ years	

1.5 To which racial group do you belong?

African	
Coloured	
Indian/Asian	
White	

1.6 What is your home language(s)?

English	
Afrikaans	
English and Afrikaans	
isiXhosa	
Other	

If other, please specify:.....

1.7 Are you an international student, i.e. not a South African citizen?

Yes	
No	

1.8 Do you regard your parents as:

Very wealthy	
Wealthy	
Middle-income	
Poor	
Very poor	
Other	

If other, please explain:.....

1.9 Including the current year (2013), how long have you been in a LLL house?

1 year	
2 years	
More than 2 years	

2. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling a number on the 10-point scale where 1= totally disagree and 10=totally agree:

2.1 I distrust people who belong to the opposite sex

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.2 I prefer to associate with people who belong to my language group

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.3 I do not regard people who belong to a different race group as inferior

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.4 I never use derogatory language to describe people from the opposite sex

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.5 I fear people who belong to a different race group

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.6 I enjoy jokes about people who do not belong to my language group

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.7 I regard people who belong to the opposite sex as inferior

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.8 I never use derogatory language about people who belong to a different race group

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.9 I trust people who are of a different socio-economic status as myself

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.10 I prefer not to associate with people from a different race group

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.11 I do not regard people with a lower socio-economic status as myself as inferior

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.12 I like associating with people from another country

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.13 I like making jokes about the opposite sex

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.14 I distrust people from a different race

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.15 I never use derogatory language about poor people

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.16 I like associating with people from the opposite sex

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.17 It is wrong to use derogatory language about people from another country

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.18 I find it funny if people use derogatory language to describe people from a different race group

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.19 I distrust people from another country

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.20 I would never make jokes about people from a different race

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.21 There is no reason to fear people who do not speak the same language as I do

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.22 I would prefer that people from another country do not come to Stellenbosch University

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.23 It is acceptable to use derogatory language about a member of the opposite sex if he/she makes you angry

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.24 I do not trust people who do not speak my language

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.25 I am not afraid of poor people

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.26 It is acceptable to make jokes about people who are very poor or very rich

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.27 If I walk into a room filled with strangers, I would prefer joining a group of people of my own sex

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.28 I would prefer not to have friends who are much richer or much poorer than I am

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.29 Making jokes about people from another country is acceptable

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2.30 People who do not speak my language are inferior

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

3. Please rate each of the groups in terms of the following traits:

3.1 People from the **opposite sex** are

Untrustworthy

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Trustworthy

Inferior

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Superior

Lazy

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Hard-working

Unreliable									Reliable
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Dishonest									Honest
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ignorant									Well-informed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Undisciplined									Well-disciplined
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3.2 People from **other race groups** are:

Untrustworthy									Trustworthy
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Inferior									Superior
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Lazy									Hard-working
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Unreliable									Reliable
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Dishonest									Honest
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ignorant									Well-informed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Undisciplined									Well-disciplined
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3.3 People who **do not speak my language** are:

Untrustworthy									Trustworthy
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Inferior									Superior
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Lazy									Hard-working
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Unreliable									Reliable
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Dishonest									Honest
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ignorant									Well-informed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Undisciplined									Well-disciplined
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3.4 People who are **much poorer** than me are:

Untrustworthy									Trustworthy
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Inferior									Superior
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Lazy									Hard-working
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Unreliable									Reliable
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Dishonest									Honest
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ignorant									Well-informed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Undisciplined										Well-disciplined
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

3.6 People from **another country** are:

Untrustworthy										Trustworthy
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Inferior										Superior
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Lazy										Hard-working
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Unreliable										Reliable
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Dishonest										Honest
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Ignorant										Well-informed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Undisciplined										Well-disciplined
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

Thank you for your co-operation!

ADDENDUM B: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE



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CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Promoting social change amongst students in higher education: an evaluation of the Listening, Living and Learning senior student housing programme at Stellenbosch University

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Dr Munita Dunn, from the Centre for Student Communities at Stellenbosch University. The results of the research will be published in a dissertation as part of the fulfillment of the MPhil in Higher Education Degree. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you have applied and have been placed in the Listening, Living and Learning (LLL) senior student housing programme at Stellenbosch University for 2013.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The LLL programme has been piloted in 2008 when it started with one student house. Currently there are 14 of these houses, and 24 will be added in December, 2013. There are 99 students in the LLL programme. The long-term development goal of LLL is to create the ultimate student housing experience, therefore not only having an influence on the way students think but also influencing their friends, family and the wider campus community. This implies that students who leave the LLL programme will have developed into leaders in their own right. The Social Change Model of Leadership espouses seven critical values which are congruent with the purpose and goals of the LLL programme. The researcher would like to determine whether LLL students develop the qualities mentioned in the Social Change Model of Leadership during the LLL experience. Due to the limited scope of the study, it will focus only on the core element of changes in stereotyping and discriminatory behavior.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

As a current Listening, Living and Learning student for 2013:

- a) You will be asked to complete an electronic questionnaire just after your enrolment as a LLL student in January 2013;
- b) You will again be asked to complete an electronic questionnaire after about 5 months in the programme.
- c) Your responses to the questionnaire will be treated strictly confidentially and will not be related to you in any way.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no potential risks or discomforts to be identified at this stage.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The LLL programme is vastly growing, and as it is currently unique to Stellenbosch University, other universities will be following suit. However, without proper validation of the outcomes of the programme, how can this be advocated as a programme enhancing positive social change? How can this then be marketed as the ideal programme for senior students exiting university, as the ultimate student housing experience? The evaluation of this programme will therefore not only be beneficial to the current students in the programme, but to the students following in the years to come. It will also be a benefit to society as the leadership skills being developed in the programme, as well as the possible changes in stereotyping and discriminatory behavior, will be validated.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The participants will receive no payment.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained

throughout the research as no names will be mentioned or published. Any information that was obtained in this study will remain confidential and anonymous.

Information that was captured (with questionnaires) will be stored electronically and only the supervisor as well as the researcher has access to the information. Recorded data will be stored safely and will be kept for a period of five years. Findings and conclusions will be published in the form of a dissertation, and names of respondents will not be made public.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Dr Munita Dunn (021 – 808 2028, 082 782 3616, mdunn@sun.ac.za) or her supervisor, Prof Magda Fourie-Malherbe at 083 645 4471.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE
--

The information above was described to me by Munita Dunn in Afrikaans/English and I am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to me. I was

given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Respondent

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

Signature of Respondent or Legal Representative

Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [name of the respondent]. [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in Afrikaans/English and [no translator was used/this conversation was translated into _____ by _____].

Signature of Investigator

Date

ADDENDUM C: RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL



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Approval Notice New Application

23-Jan-2013
Duna, Manita M

Protocol #: **DESC_Duna2012**

Title: **Promoting social change amongst students in higher education: an evaluation of the Listening, Living and Learning senior student housing programme at Stellenbosch University.**

Dear Doctor Manita Duna,

The New Application received on 04-Dec-2012, was reviewed by staff members of the REC office on 23-Jan-2013 and was approved. Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

Protocol Approval Period: 23-Jan-2013 -22-Jan-2014

Standard provisions

1. The researcher will remain within the procedures and protocols indicated in the proposal, particularly in terms of any undertakings made in terms of the confidentiality of the information gathered.
2. The research will again be submitted for ethical clearance if there is any substantial departure from the existing proposal.
3. The researcher will remain within the parameters of any applicable national legislation, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of research.
4. The researcher will consider and implement the foregoing suggestions to lower the ethical risk associated with the research.

You may commence with your research with strict adherence to the abovementioned provisions and stipulations.

Please remember to use your **protocol number** (DESC_Duna2012) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research protocol.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

After Ethical Review:

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) number REC-050411-032.

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki, the South African Medical Research Council Guidelines as well as the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health).

Provincial and City of Cape Town Approval

Please note that for research at a primary or secondary healthcare facility permission must be obtained from the relevant authorities (Western Cape Department of Health and/or City Health) to conduct the research as stated in the protocol. Contact persons are Ms Claudette Abrahams at Western Cape Department of Health (healthres@gwc.gov.za Tel: +27 21 483 9907) and Dr Helene Visser at City Health (Helene.Visser@capetown.gov.za Tel: +27 21 400 3961). Research that will be conducted at any tertiary academic institution requires approval from the relevant parties. For approvals from the Western Cape Education Department, contact Dr AT Wyngaard (awyngaard@gwc.gov.za, Tel: 0214769272, Fax: 0865902282, <http://wced.wcape.gov.za>).

Institutional permission from academic institutions for students, staff & alumni. This institutional permission should be obtained before submitting an application for ethics clearance to the REC.

Please note that informed consent from participants can only be obtained after ethics approval has been granted. It is your responsibility as researcher to keep signed informed consent forms for inspection for the duration of the research.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.
If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 0218089183.

Included Documents:

Informed Consent